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AN OUTLINE OF ITALIAN FOREIGN POLICY

THE ECONOMIC SITUATION IN ITALY

THE ITALIAN VITICULTURE

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AN OUTLINE OF ITALIAN FOREIGN POLICY

Foreign Relations in 1961

The world situation during the first six months of 1961 was dominated by the entry of President Kennedy to the White House, the worsening of the situation in Laos, the failure of the counter-revolutionary landing in Cuba, the collapse of a new rebellion of the « ultras » in Algeria, the opening of negotiations between the French Government and the representatives of the Algerian Provisional Government, the Kennedy-Khrushchev meeting at Vienna, the decision of the neutral countries to hold a conference in Yugoslavia and the events in the Congo. These were all happenings that may well be considered as local signs of the tension between East and West, between democracy and communism, which still threatens the future of the world.

This has been the background to Italian foreign policy which is directed towards assuring peace and finding suitable solutions to the many complex problems that are present.

In his « Message on the State of the Union » of January 30, 1961, the President of the United States said that the new Administration « would once again examine and consider the arsenal of instruments at its disposal, both military, economic and political ». In the first place, it would strengthen its defence, secondly it would bring economic improvements by helping other nations to gain the strength necessary to the settlement of their problems and thirdly, it would again examine the question of disarmament, support the United Nations and propose world scientific collaboration.

The announcement of such a policy might well be considered as an adequate reply on the part of the leader of world democracy to the designs for universal unrest planned in Moscow in early December 1960 during the Congress of the world's communist parties.

* * *

The Italian Government, extremely satisfied at the firm intention of President Kennedy to guarantee the defence of the democratic world and to facilitate the spreading of the principles of freedom, justice, equality and peace among all nations, gave the closest attention to any signs of goodwill on the part of the Kremlin. Through normal diplomatic channels and by means of bilateral and mutilateral talks at high level, every attempt was made to see if some partial

agreement could be reached between East and West or at least greater distension that would facilitate a more peaceful atmosphere in which ideas and proposals could be exchanged.

Considered on a world scale, because of the close relations now existing between the world's continents, one of the major events of the year was President Gronchi's official visit to Lima, Buenos Aires and Montevideo, following those made to Rome by the respective presidents of these nations. On his return, President Gronchi halted at Rio de Janiero for a meeting with President Quadros.

Such visits offered Italy and the countries concerned an opportunity of examining reciprocal relations which have always been strong as a result of a large number of Italian immigrants present in the Latin American nations. This has placed Italy in the fortunate position of being able to take an active role in the economic development of that continent, something that the European countries have lately urged and which the United States is now justly considering in its true light.

On his return from Latin America, President Gronchi was host to Queen Elizabeth II who paid a State visit to Italy. This event far surpassed the requirements of protocol and return courtesies following the President's visit to the Queen in 1958. This was the second time that a British sovereign had set foot on Italian soil since the country was unified and it took place almost forty years after the visit of King George V and Queen Mary. All classes of the Italian population demonstrated their pleasure at the event which fortunately coincided with celebrations of the centenary of Italian unity. It was given a great deal of space in the press of both countries and induced the respective governments to have even greater confidence in future prospects for traditional Anglo-Italian friendship. This was important in view of the possible entry of the United Kingdom into the European Common Market and eventual political unity.

* * *

These State visits were accompanied by numerous official meetings between members of the Italian Government and their colleagues of the Atlantic powers and other friendly nations. During the first six months of 1961, the Prime Minister, the Hon. Amintore Fanfani, met the High Authority of the Coal and Steel Community, the Prime Minister of Afghanistan, Government leaders of the other five member states of the common market, Mr. Harriman, the representative of President Quadros of Brazil, Ambassador Oliveira Campos, Chancellor Adenauer, the Norwegian Minister of Foreign Affairs, the former U.S. Secretary of State, Mr. Dean Acheson, the Greek Minis-

ter of Foreign Affairs, the Prime Minister of Somalia, the Minister of Justice of Senegal, the Soviet Minister of Foreign Trade, President Kennedy and the late Mr. Hammarskjöld, Secretary General of the United Nations.

Special mention must also be made of the visit that the Prime Minister made to Pope John XXIII on April 11, since this was arranged for the purpose of showing that no anti-clerical feelings were involved in celebrations connected with the centenary of Italian unity.

On these visits, the Prime Minister was accompanied by the Minister and Undersecretary of Foreign Affairs or by other members of the Government as occasion demanded. In the more limited field of foreign affairs, the Hon. Antonio Segni and the Hon. Russo (Undersecretary) met the Chairman of the Commission for the Common Market, the Danish Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Chairman of the State Committee for Foreign Cultural Relations of the U.S.S.R. and the Belgian Minister for Foreign Affairs and made official visits to Japan (May 31 - June 6) and Yugoslavia (June 28 - July 1).

These numerous meetings point to the intensity and embracing nature of Italian foreign policy during the first six months of 1961. This was devoted to ecouraging even closer relations between Italy and those nations forming part of international organization (O.E.E.C., E.E.C., Council of Europe, N.A.T.O., W.E.U. and the United Nations) or associations of another nature and widening friendship with others. Such activities had the sole scope of ecouraging greater reciprocal comprehension that will result in collaboration that is truly on a world scale.

The visits already mentioned refer only to those carried out by the President of the Republic, the Prime Minister and the Minister of Foreign Affairs. A more complete and detailed knowledge of Italian foreign policy means citing the many meetings that took place between members of the Italian Government and officials with those of other nations, meetings that were mostly of a technical nature since they concerned specific questions. Too numerous and varied to be summarized, these talks were of particular importance within the ambit of the European Community and the Atlantic Alliance.

Government and diplomatic activity in the field of world relations culminated in talks between the Italian Prime Minister and the Minister of Foreign Affairs with President Kennedy and the Secretary of State, Mr. Dean Rusk, the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Dillon and the Secretary of Defence, Mr. McNamara, at Washington. A meeting was also arranged with the Secretary General of the United Nations.

During these talks, all aspects of world relations interesting both nations or the United Nations were carefully examined and this permitted Italy to express opinions on the world situation in two places that probably exercise the most influence on international events. On both occasions, all the chief problems of the moment were discussed in detail, ranging from the German question — Berlin and re-unification — to the Atlantic Alliance, the growth of European unity and participation of Great Britain in the Community. Conversations also centred round the constant expansion of the Soviet Union, technical and financial aid for the less favoured nations, the situation in the Middle East and Latin America, Africa and the Far East, further talks on disarmament and the reorganization of the United Nations. On the latter point, everyone was agreed on the need to find an answer to the idea of a « troika », suggested by Mr. Khrushchev as a means of sabotaging the organization's functions, and fitting the organization's structure to the new situation created through the entry of a large number of new states.

At the end of June, the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Hon. Antonio Segni, was invited to Yugoslavia, following a visit to Rome in 1960 by the Yugoslav Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Popovic. On this occasion, the Italian Foreign Minister also met Marshall Tito. This represented the first visit of an Italian Foreign Minister to that country after the second world war and it demonstrated that both nations had set aside all past misunderstandings and, in spite of the different forms of government, were determined more than ever to collaborate in the interests of world peace.

* * *

Unfortunately, the same cannot be said of Italy's other neighbour on her north east borders — Austria — and relations suffered through the continuation of the Alto Adige controversy.

During the first six months of 1961, this matter was further embittered by the action of Austria and an indiscrimate campaign of fiery anti-Italian propaganda, carried out by various circles without any efficacious repressive action on the part of the Vienna Government, began to give rise to a series of terrorist attacks and violence.

Italian disappointment over the possibilities of success of bilateral talks, suggested by the United Nations, was marked since it was hoped that direct negotiation would lead to the settlement of the controversy which had originally started over the execution of the De Gasperi-Grüber Agreement.

Three meetings between Italy and Austria (Milan, January 27-28, Klagenfurt, May 24-25 and Zurich June 24) led to no definite results

as a result of the rigidness of the Austrian delegates who constantly refused to pursue objective discussions on the offers repeated by Italy in a spirit of comprehension and with a desire to give a constructive answer to the demands of Austria.

The Austrian Government insisted that Italy, prior to negotiation, accept all the demands forwarded by Vienna and which may be summarized as complete autonomy in administrative and legislative fields for Alto Adige. This was something quite extraneous to the requirements of the De Gasperi-Gruber Agreement, even if considered in the light of the talks that had followed.

Austria then decided that bilateral talks could no longer be continued — as considered in the first paragraph of the United Nations' Resolution — and implied that other methods should be adopted as under the second paragraph of the said Resolution, also suggesting that the question of Alto Adige be entrusted to a Commission of Enquiry.

Even this latter suggestion did not appear suitable or likely to settle the controversy and reduce present tension. It seemed quite clear that, since the object of the contrasts between the two nations was the execution of an international treaty, the most obvious thing to do was to take the matter to the International Court of The Hague. Italy had long made it clear that she was quite prepared to accept such a procedure but had also let it be understood that she would not accept any form of settlement that falsified the essentially juridical nature of the question.

* * *

During the second half of 1961, world relations felt the worsening of the situation in Berlin, which terminated in the building of a wall between the East and West zones, accompanied by a new series of nuclear experiments on the part of the Soviet Union. The Congo crisis became more acutely felt both within the country and at the United Nation as a result of the killing of thirteen Italian aircrew at Kindu. Tension in Algeria and France grew as the O.A.S. sought to prevent an agreement between the Government and the Algerian National Liberation Front. There was some improvement in the dangerous situation in Laos, mostly due to the mediation of Great Britain and the Soviet Union between the pro-western, neutralist and pro-communist elements struggling for domination of the country. The Angola question was transformed from a national level to an international question at the United Nations, India marched into Goa, Indonesia threatened to march into New Guinea, the United Nations underwent a very

very critical period as a result of the unrest in the world, the United States decided to take more decisive action, within the ambit of the Organization of American States, for the purpose of outlawing Fidel Castro's regime and there were new political and economic developments within the European Economic Community.

On July 7/8, the Prime Minister, the Hon. Amintore Fanfani and the Foreign Minister visited Washington to meet President Kennedy and the Secretary of State, Mr. Rusk. This was the first meeting between the two Italian statesmen and the two leaders of the new Administration. The ensuing talk permitted exchange of views on the chief events of the moment and revealed general agreement on the policy that should be followed, the methods to be used and the possible solutions that might successfully settle the more urgent world problems. President Kennedy had but shortly returned from visits to General De Gaulle, Mr. Khrushchev and Mr. MacMillan. European aspects of East-West relations and, above all, the German problem, were the object of detailed examination as also questions pertaining to the Atlantic Alliance.

Upon their return to Italy, the Prime Minister and the Minister for Foreign Affairs, received an invitation from Mr. Khrushchev to visit Moscow. This was the second time, after the visit of the President of the Republic, on February 6/11, 1960, that Italian political exponents had been asked to meet Soviet leaders and was a sign of the fact that even the most powerful states, including those of diverse political beliefs, were interested in Italian policy. After consultation with Italy's allies, the Prime Minister and the Foreign Minister reached Moscow on August 2/5. They had two long meetings with Mr. Khrushchev during the course of which they suggested that the question of Berlin, which was becoming somewhat acute during the period in question, should be faced and possibly settled in a wide spirit of mutual comprehension through negotiation. The results of the meeting were made known to the American Secretary of State, Mr. Rusk, who came specially to Rome on August 9, and to Chancellor Adenauer on the following day as he was leaving Malpensa Airport for Bonn after a short period of repose at Cadenabbia.

Unfortunately, the rapid succession of events prevented a speedy approach to negotiations between France, Great Britain, the United States and the Soviet Union, signatory powers of the Potsdam Agreement, over the German question which rapidly deteriorated. On August 13, following a visit to Moscow on the part of Dr. Ulbricht of the German Democratic Republic, the East German authorities started building a wall between the two sectors of Berlin.

A few days later, on August 30, Mr. Khrushchev decided to start fresh nuclear experiments which took place on the island of New Zemlja. The experiments grew in intensity concluding with an explosion measured at more than 50 megatons.

However, the western allies refused to allow themselves to be impressed and held to their conditions over Berlin and Germany, strengthening their defences in Europe. The firm attitude of N.A.T.O., the approaching German general elections of September 27 and the imminent 22nd. Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, held in Moscow on October 17, persuaded the Russians that the situation could not be forced too far.

The 16th. General Assembly of the United Nations opened in New York on September 19 during which there were marginal talks between the Soviet Foreign Minister, Mr. Gromyko, the British Foreign Secretary, Lord Holme, the American Secretary of State, Mr. Dean Rusk and the U.S. President, Mr. Kennedy. These succeeded in persuading Mr. Khrushchev that it would be more logical to settle the German question by negotiation rather than by demonstrations of strength. It was suggested that he annul his ultimatum which stated that if his proposals over Berlin were not accepted by December 31, the Soviet Union would sign a separate Peace Treaty with East Germany.

In the meantime, the Italian Government had an opportunity of taking further action to settle the problem. This culminated in an explanation of the Italian viewpoint during the annual session of the N.A.T.O. Council (at Foreign Minister and Defence Minister level), held in Paris on December 12/16. The Italian Government expressed the view that it agreed with the majority opinion that every attempt should be made to end the Berlin question through negotiations but suggested that it would be opportune, from all points of view, if those western powers particularly committed to the Berlin problem should speedily open exploratory talks with the Soviet Union to discover some basis for further and more determined discussions.

General acceptance of the compromise that Italy so warmly suppported led to the Russian-American talks that opened in Moscow on January 2, 1962. These were devoted to Berlin, certain other aspects of the German question and relative matters of a less limited nature.

During this period of East-West relations, the situation in the Congo showed signs of slow improvement, mostly due to the support that the United Nations gave to the new Government formed on August 3, 1961 by Adula, with the formal participation of Gizenga,

a follower of Lumumba but lacking Tshombe, still tenaciously following his dream of making Katanga independent. The contrasts between Leopoldville, Adula's headquarters, Stanleyville, Gizenga's retreat and Elizabethville, Tshombe's stronghold, were still not solved when, on November 11, 1961, thirteen Italian aircrew, serving under the United Nations, were murdered at Kindu by Congolese soldiers commanded by Colonel Pokassa.

This barbarious behaviour greatly impressed Italian and world opinion and the Italian Government took prompt action to make sure that the authors be punished by the Congolese Government and to obtain U.N. guarantees that Italians in the Congo be provided with suitable protection when carrying out missions entrusted to them. The event also drew attention once more to U.N. activities in the Congo and the Italian Government, having assured the organization that it would continue to provide medical and flying personnel, had occasion to discuss the matter at the time of the 16th. General Assembly. The Italian Foreign Minister, on more than one occasion, was able to talk about the crisis in the Congo with the political representatives of many nations and, in particular, with the U.S. Secretary of State, Mr. Rusk. The Italian Minister argued that the United Nations should continue its work and strengthen its forces in the Congo in order to speedily establish unity, order and tranquility. In effect, during the months that followed, the U.N. supported the Adula Government, first against Tshombe in an energetic manner that initially raised some criticism, and secondly against Gizenga, who was finally persuaded to leave Stanleyville and transfer to Leopoldville.

The evolution of the situation in Algeria, characterized by the efforts of the French Government to reach an agreement with the provisional Government of the Republic of Algeria, formed by Youssef ben Khedda on August 27, over a cease fire and a referendum, and the opposing efforts of the O.A.S., headed by General Salan, leading to terrorism, was carefully followed by the Italian Government. No attempt was made at interference since this was a question that France considered as an internal one and, in any case, a matter concerning a friendly and neighbouring nation. However, this did not prevent the Rome authorities from letting it be known that Italy was all in favour of a settlement of contrasts since this would permit peaceful and fruitful collaboration among the Mediterranean peoples and eliminate all apprehension over the French political situation.

Italian interest in a peaceful end to the fighting in Algeria was also justified by the fact that there was a danger of complications

should hostilities continue. There had been a critical moment when Tunisia had demanded that the French evacuate the naval base at Biserta. This led to sharp fighting between the French and Tunisian Armed Forces and numerous dead and wounded, particularly among the civilian population of the city. Again, thanks to Italian insistence that moderation be used, the crisis was overcome and final settlement put off until the end of the Franco-Algerian war.

Yet another African region, much further south, was the scene of violent fighting during the second half of 1961. The uprisings that took place in the north east regions of Angola, and the fighting between Europeans and natives, were largely due to the influence of the Congo situation. Events in Angola, however, drew the attention of the whole world to this ancient Portuguese overseas territory. In relation to the question of « de-colonization » — and although the Portuguese Government insisted that Angola, like all Portuguese overseas territories, was on an equal level with the mother-country — it was generally considered that the question in point would have to be discussed by the United Nations. Angola had already been discussed by the Security Council on June 9 and was entered on the Agenda of the 16th. General Assembly for examination in February 1962. The Italian Government once again made every effort to conciliate the opposing parties, pointing out the dangers involved in a too speedy withdrawal from such territories and in Portuguese determination to hold on to its overseas territories.

Such opinions, on the other hand, were not shared by India which attacked the Portuguese possession of Goa on December 17, 1961. The small territory was conquered after a few days of fighting although Indian policy could not be justified by any desire of the local people to relinquish Portuguese sovereignty which had lasted for more than 400 years. The invasion was highly criticized by all countries sincerely desiring peace and professing democratic principles and Portugal was shown a certain comprehension. The question of Goa was also connected with a whole series of unfavourable circumstances, which ranged from complications in defending a territory so far away, the difficulties the Indian Prime Minister, Mr. Nehru, was encountering in defending the northern frontiers against Chinese infiltration and contrasts with Pakistan over Kashmir.

India's invasion of Goa, as was to be expected, persuaded Indonesia to claim annexation of the western regions of New Guinea, in possession of the Dutch who still maintained sovereignty in spite of the decisions taken at the Round Table Conference at The Hague on August 23 - November 2, 1950. These decisions were such that

the territory in question was to have been transferred to the new independent Republic of Indonesia.

Once again, the Italian Government made every effort to persuade the Low Countries and Indonesia to settle the controversy without resorting to violence. Such approaches were particularly opportune since Indonesia had threatened to invade New Guinea in the event of the Dutch refusing to cede the territory in question.

Events in the Congo, Goa, Angola and New Guinea brought about discussions on the authority and even the usefulness of the United Nations. Many have been of the opinion that the organization, under the influence of the predominant Afro-Asian states, has been inclined to adopt different measures, according to whether a certain problem was of interest to a European or Afro-Asian state.

On the other hand, the Soviet Union, thinking that the western and Afro-Asian countries, all more or less employing democratic principles, would continue to oppose acceptance of proposals favouring Soviet expansion, again insisted that the Secretariat of the organization be split into three.

The « troika » theory, by virtue of which the Secretary General should be replaced by three Secretaries General — one representing the West, one the Soviet bloc and one the Afro-Asian countries — each with the right to veto any proposal, had been suggested by Mr. Khrushchev on several occasions (although never officially) but had always been rejected by the West on the grounds that it would paralyse the organization. It came to the fore again when, with the death of Mr. Hammarskjoeld in a flying accident while on his way to meet Chiombe at Ndola on August 28, a decision had to be made as to his successor. Together with her allies, Italy insisted on the principle of one Secretary General since this was the only way of enforcing the authority of the United Nations and hastening any action the organization might have to undertake. The question was finally settled through the election of Mr. U-Than as interim Secretary General and eight deputy Secretaries-General — United States (1), France (1), the Soviet Union (1), Czechoslovakia (1), Brazil (1), India (1), Nigeria (1), Arabia (1).

Italian support of the United Nations has been demonstrated in various ways. These include a vote in favour of the admission of such newly independent nations as Sierra Leone, Mauritania, Outer Mongolia and Tanganyika, membership of the special Committee of Seventeen on De-colonization (instituted by the General Assembly on November 27, 1961), membership of various organs and agencies of the United Nations, contributions for Palestine refugees and peaceful settlement of controversies in the Near East and the Congo,

assistance to less favoured nations and participation in preliminary talks on disarmament.

Indeed, disarmament was one of the most important branches of world policy, connected with the United Nations, over which Italy was called to give a serious and balanced contribution. The second half of 1961, however, was essentially a period devoted to preparations for the new conference of eighteen powers (5 western nations, including Italy, 5 eastern states and 8 neutrals), although the General Assemby of the United Nations, on December 13, 1961, decided that further examination should be made of this urgent and important problem.

On the American continent, there were growing discussions over the internal and external tendencies of the Cuban Government led by Fidel Castro and whether these could be reconciled with the democratic principles professed by the members of the Organization of American States. The question was due to come up for discussion during the talks at Montevideo, opening on January 22, 1962.

Logically, Italy has followed events on the American continent with close interest because of their importance to balanced world policy and the close ties existing between this countries and all the nationals of South, Central and North America.

But as so many complex happenings were holding the attention of Italian foreign policy, other events were maturing in Europe that were of more direct consequence to this country. These concerned the strengthening of the European Common Market, its transformation from a purely economic union to a political association and the request for admission from several nations, first among them the United Kingdom.

The participation of the Italian Government in the development of collaboration between the six member states of the community established under the treaties signed in Rome on March 25, 1957 is obvious from the following. The Foreign Minister, the Hon. Antonio Segni, attended the meeting of the Six Foreign Ministers in Rome on July 10, the Prime Minister and the Foreign Minister visited Bonn on July 18 for talks between Government leaders of the six member states, President Hallestein and Vice-President Caron of the European Economic Commission arrived in Rome on September 30, the Italian Minister for Foreign Affairs took part in talks between representatives of the six member states in Paris on October 10/11 concerning the request of the United Kingdom to enter the European Economic Community and, finally, the Foreign Minister, the Minister of Agriculture and the Minister of Industry and Trade repeatedly visited Brussels between December

18, 1961 and January 14, 1962 for meetings of the Councils of the European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Commission. These talks dealt with the opening of the second of the three phases foreseen in the Rome treaties and a definite decision was finally reached with effect from January 1, 1962.

At a moment in which it was agreed to continue along the path leading to European unity, the following new requests, in order of presentation, were under examination:

a) request for membership - Ireland, Great Britain and Denmark;

b) requests for association - Turkey, Austria, Sweden, Switzerland and Spain (the earlier request from Greece was approved on July 9);

c) special agreements - Yugoslavia and Israel.

These are tangible proof of the success of the European policy tenaciously pursued by Italy for fifteen years.

The political aspects, unfortunately, have not taken any definite shape leading to formal agreements and the creation of supranational institutions for a variety of reasons, one of the chief obstacles being the situation in France which is a result of the hostilities in Algeria. Following Great Britain's request for entry, the French Government approached the other five member states on October 20 and advanced proposals for a new treaty of a more embracing nature than the agreements signed in Rome in 1957, designed to launch political collaboration among the common market nations in conformity with the principles adopted by the six Government leaders during the Bonn meeting of July 18.

The French project for a « union of States » to be formed initially among the six member countries of the E.E.C., the E.C.S.C. and Euratom, was accepted by the other five nations as the basis for an agreement that is still being drafted. Its final version will reflect the policy of close European and Atlantic cooperation followed over the past few years by Italy and the other member states.

The foreign policy of the Italian Government has been based to a great extent on solidarity between the countries belonging to the Atlantic Alliance which is a guarantee of peace and freedom and a bulwark against Soviet expansion for all those who are not prepared to submit to communist dictatorship. This solidarity, which is expressed in constant talks and meetings with members of the Alliance at Paris, was amply revealed in the visit to Rome, on October 9/11, of the Secretary General of N.A.T.O., Stikker,

and the United States representative to the Atlantic Council, Mr. Finletter, on November 3. The Italian delegation was present at the usual meeting of the Atlantic Council, at Foreign Minister level, on December 12/26 and the Hon. Antonio Segni proposed the drafting of a document explaining the allies' conception of human society, the principles that should be accepted, the path to be followed and the objectives that must be reached.

An outline of Italian foreign policy during the second half of 1961 would not be complete without mention of some other important events. These included the Euro-African inter-parliamentary meeting at Bari on July 1/3, the visit made by the Minister of Foreign Trade, Signor Martinelli, to Bucharest on July 18, the arrival of the U.S. delegate to the U.N., Mr. Stevenson, on July 26, the Rome visit of the Foreign Minister of Tunisia, Mr. Sadok Mokaddem, on August 7, the visit of the Japanese Foreign Minister, Mr. Kosaka, on July 13, the arrival of the former Japanese Prime Minister, Mr. Kishi, on August 31, an official visit of a New Zealand parliamentary delegation on August 31, a visit from the President of the Republic of Somalia, Mr. Osman, and the new King of Morocco, Hassan II, also on August 31, the arrival of the Minister of Industry and Trade of Ethiopia, Mr. Makomen, the Rome meeting of the Norwegian Undersecretary of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Engen with the Italian Undersecretary, Signor Russo, on September 18, the arrival in Rome of the Spanish Minister of Trade, Senor Ullastres on September 23, the visit to Paris of the Italian Defence Minister, Signor Andreotti, on October 12/24 and his successive trips to Washington and New York on October 16/17, the Rome meeting between the Polish Foreign Minister, Mr. Rapaki and the Italian Prime Minister and, finally, the arrival of the Danish Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Styke, on November 10.

The Prime Minister and the Minister of Foreign Affairs were also present at Vatican ceremonies marking the 80th. birthday and 40th. anniversary of the consecration of Pope John XXIII, an occasion that brought high-level government delegations to Rome. This permitted Italian political representative to have marginal talks with members of foreign governments and, in particular, the Italian Foreign Minister, the Hon. Antonio Segni, was able to meet the Spanish Foreign Minister, Senor Castiella, and discuss Spain's gradual return to the family of democratic western nations.

This intense labour directed towards assuring peace and world collaboration in the interests of economic and social progress has greatly facilitated trade and cultural relations between Italy and

other nations and these, after all, are the main preoccupation of a country that, like Italy, has no territorial problems.

Italian educational and cultural institutes and centres abroad have been increased and cultural exchange has been intensified. More scholarships for foreign students in Italy and Italian students abroad have also been made available.

In 1961, imports rose by 14.8% over 1960, increasing from 2,953 milliard lire to 3,264 milliard lire; exports expanded by 10.5%, from 2,280 milliard lire to 2,617 milliard lire. Italian foreign investments totalled 165 million dollars and foreign investment sin Italy reached the sum of 324 million dollars. Once again, the Italian balance of payments showed a surplus of several hundred million dollars.

General economic and social progress and the policy of peaceful and free development pursued by the Italian Government has to some extent reduced the urgent need to encourage emigration as a means of reducing unemployment of excess manpower. This means that emigration problems have become a little less important in Italian international relations.

However, the comforting picture of 1961, was somewhat shadowed during the second half of the year by the controversy with Austria over Alto Adige.

The first six months closed with the Austrian statement that bilateral negotiations over the contrasts arising from the manner in the which the De Gasperi-Grüber Agreement had been excuted, recommended in paragraph 1 of Resolution No. 1497, unanimously approved by the General Assembly of the United Nations on October 30, 1960, should be considered terminated. Vienna claimed that it was now time to pass to paragraph 2 of the said Resolution which contemplates the use of other peaceful measures and suggested the nomination of an international Committee to examine the situation « in loco ». But, at the same time, there were an increasing number of acts of sabotage and territorists attacked electrical installations and rail communications in Alto Adige and in other Italian regions.

Italy rejected the Austria viewpoint, observing that bilateral negotiations were by no means terminated and, in view of the fact that the controversy concerned the execution of an international agreement, the most suitable way of reaching a clear and final settlement would be to take the matter to the International Court. However, the Austrians were asked to give a clearer explanation of their proposals.

Without waiting for an Italian reply to the Austrian Government's statements of July 4 concerning the adoption of paragraph 2 of the

U.N. Resolution, Vienna asked, on July 18, that the Alto Adige controversy be entered on the Agenda of the 16th. General Assembly of October 31, 1960.

In view of the United Nations debate, the Austrian Government did everything possible to avoid all responsibility for the terrorist attacks that were taking place. The attempt was unsuccessful, however, because of detailed information supplied by Italy which revealed embarassing Austrian tolleration of violence that was clearly in contrast with the third paragraph of the U.N. Resolution.

In order to break the vicious circle of ultra-nationalism formed by Austrian Socialists and members of the Popular Party, the Italian Government had, in June, made new and direct approaches to parliamentary representatives of Alto Adige representing the German-language group. For the purpose of bringing the situation of the minority in Alto Adige within the proper limits of home policy, a special Committee was instituted on September 13 and authorized to examine the question of the region in consultation with representatives of all the language groups (Italian, German and Ladin), of political, trade union, cultural and economic organizations and associations and with individuals considered competent. The Committee was to act under the chairmanship of the Hon. Paolo Rossi of the Social Democrat Party.

The matter came before the special Political Committee of the United Nations on November 15. The Committee concluded its examination on November 23 with the approval of the following Resolution, which also unanimously approved by the General Assembly on November 28: « The General Assembly, mindfull of Resolution No. 1947 (XV), noting with satisfaction that negotiations are continuing between the two parties and aware that the controversy has not yet been settled, asks the two parties to continue in their afforts to reach a settlement that conforms to Paras. 1, 2 and 3 of the above-mentioned Resolution ».

This implied total acceptance of the Italian viewpoint set out in a Memorandum presented to the United Nations on the eve of the debate in answer to one presented by Austria on October 10, and of the observations made by the Italian Foreign Minister on November 16 and 22 in answer to a speech made by the Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Kreisky.

But, even including the unfortunate controversy with Austria, there can be no doubt that the year marking the centenary of Italian unity also witnessed the pursuance of a policy guaranteeing peace, collaboration and progress for all.

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FROM THE SECOND TO THE FOURTH FANFANI CABINET

Ministers and Undersecretaries appointed since July 1958

The following is a list of the Ministers appointed to the Cabinets that have been formed since July 1958 (1).

IInd. FANFANI CABINET
(July 10, 1958 - January 26, 1959)

Prime Minister: Hon. Amintore Fanfani
Deputy Prime Minister: Hon. Antonio Segni
Ministers without Portfolio: Senator Rinaldo De Bo (*Parliamentary Liaison*), Senator Camillo Giardina (*Bureaucratic Reform*), Hon. Giulio Pastore (*Southern Italy Delevolopment Fund*).

Ministers

Foreign Affairs: Hon. Amintore Fanfani
Interior: Hon. Fernando Tambroni
Justice: Hon. Guido Gonella
Budget: Senator Giuseppe Medici
Finance: Hon. Luigi Preti
Treasury: Hon. Giulio Andreotti
Defence: Hon. Antonio Segni
Public Instruction: Hon. Aldo Moro
Public Works: Hon. Giuseppe Togni
Agriculture and Forestry: Hon. Mario Ferrari Aggradi
Transport: Hon. Armando Angelini
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Alberto Simonini
Industry and Trade: Hon. Giorgio Bo
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Ezio Vigorelli
Foreign Trade: Hon. Emilio Colombo
Merchant Marine: Hon. Giuseppe Spataro
State Participations: Senator Edgardo Lami Starnuti
High Commissioner for Public Health: Senator Vincenzo Monaldi (*b*)

Undersecretaries

Presidency of the Council of Ministers: Hon. Antonio Maxia (*Sec. Council of Ministers*), Hon. Gustavo De Meo (*Press and Information*), Hon. Egidio Ariosto (*Entertainment*)
Foreign Affairs: Hon. Alberto Folchi, Hon. Giuseppe Lupis
Interior: Hon. Crescenzo Mazza, Senator Antonio Romano
Justice: Senator Lorenzo Spallino
Budget: Hon. Athos Valsecchi
Finance: Hon. Salvatore Mannironi, Hon. Lorenzo Natali
Treasury: Hon. Emanuele Guerrieri, Hon. Mario Riccio, Hon. Angelo Salizzoni
Defence: Senator Giuseppe Caron, Hon. Edoardo Martino, Hon. Carlo Russo
Public Instruction: Senator Angelo Di Rocco, Hon. Giovanni Battista Scaglia
Public Works: Hon. Guido Ceccherini, Senator Tommaso Spasari
Agriculture and Forestry: Hon. Luigi Angrisani, Senator Giuseppe Garlato
Transport: Hon. Dario Antoniozzi, Hon. Virgilio Bertinelli
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Umberto Delle Fave

(1) See: *Italian Governments from Badoglio o Zoli* July 1957 No. IV - 4, pages.

(*b*) When Law N. 298, March 13, 1958, instituting the Ministry of Public Health, came into force, Senator Monaldi took office as the competent Minister on August 14, 1958.

Industry and Trade: Hon. Eugenio Gatto, Hon. Filippo Micheli
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Ferdinando Storchi, Hon. Benigno Zaccagnini
Foreign Trade: Senator Giovanni Spagnolli
Merchant Marine: Hon. Italo Giulio Caiati
State Participations: Hon. Fiorentino Sullo

IInd. SEGNI CABINET

(February 15, 1959 - February, 24, 1960)

Prime Minister: Hon. Antonio Segni
Ministers without Portfolio: Senator Giorgio Bo (*Bureacratic Reform*), Hon. Giulio Pastore (*Southern Italy Development Fund*) Hon. Giuseppe Bettiol (*Parliamentary Liaison*), Hon. Umberto Tupini (*Tourism and Sport*) (*c*)

Ministers

Foreign Affairs: Hon. Giuseppe Pella
Interior: Hon. Antonio Segni
Justice: Hon. Guido Gonella
Budget: Hon. Fernando Tambroni
Finance: Hon. Paolo Emilio Taviani
Treasury (interim): Hon. Fernando Tambroni
Defence: Hon. Giulio Andreotti
Public Instruction: Hon. Giuseppe Medici
Public Works: Hon. Giuseppe Togni
Agriculture and Forests: Hon. Mariano Rumor
Transport: Senator Armando Angelini
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Giuseppe Spataro
Industry and Trade: Hon. Emilio Colombo
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Benigno Zaccagnini
Foreign Trade: Hon. Rinaldo De Bo
Merchant Marine: Senator Angelo Raffaele Jervolino
State Participations: Hon. Mario Ferreri Aggradi
Public Health: Senator Camillo Giardina
Tourism and Entertainment: Hon. Umberto Tupini (*c*)

Undersecretaries

Presidency of the Council of Ministers: Hon. Carlo Russo (*Sec. Council of Ministers*), Hon. Alfredo Amatucci (*Bureaucratic Reform*), Hon. Domenico Magri (*Entertainment*), Hon. Crescenzo Mazza (*Press and Information*)
Foreign Affairs: Hon. Carmine De Marno, Hon. Alberto Folchi
Interior: Senator Guido Bisori, Hon. Oscar Luigi Scalfaro
Justice: Senator Lorenzo Spallino
Budget: Senator Angelo De Luca
Finance: Senator Giacomo Piola, Hon. Athos Valsecchi
Treasury: Senator Alfonso De Giovine. Hon. Antonio Maxia, Hon. Guglielmo Schiratti, Hon. Alfonso Tesauro
Defence: Hon. Giovanni Bovetti, Hon. Italo Guido Caiati, Hon. Edoardo Martino
Public Instruction: Hon. Angelo Di Rocco, Hon. Giovanni Battista Scaglia (*d*)
Public Works: Senator Antonio Pecoraro, Senator Tommaso Spasari
Agriculture and Forestry: Hon. Salvatore Mannironi, Hon. Giacomo Sedati
Transport: Hon. Augusto Cesare Fanelli, Hon. Giuseppe Garlato (*e*), Hon. Domenico Colasanto (*f*)
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Dario Antoniozzi, Hon. Antonio Romano
Industry and Trade: Hon. Eugenio Gatto, Hon. Filippo Micheli
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Angela Gotella, Hon. Ferdinando Storchi, Hon. Amos Zanibelli (*g*)

(c) Instituted under Law No. 618, July 31, 1959.

(d) Up to December 1959. Nominated Deputy Secretary of the Christian Democrat Party, he was succeeded by the Hon. Maria Badaloni.
(e) Withdrew from this office on February 24, 1959 and was then appointed Undersecretary to the Ministry for State Partecipations.
(f) Appointed Undersecretary to the Miuistry of Transport on February 24, 1959.
(g) Resigned on February 23, 1959.

Foreign Trade: Senator Giovanni Spagnolli
Merchant Marine: Hon. Francesco Turnaturi
State Participations: Hon. Fiorentino Sullo (*h*), Senator Giuseppe Garlato (*e*)
Public Health: Hon. Beniamino Gaetano De Maria
Tourism: Hon. Domenico Larussa

TAMBRONI CABINET
(March 25, 1960 - July 25, 1960)

Prime Minister: Hon. Fernando Tambroni
Ministers without Portfolio: Senator Armando Angelini (*Parliamentary Liaison*), Senator Giorgio Bo (*Bureaucratic Reform*) (*i*), Hon. Giulio Pastore (*Southern Italy Development Fund*) (1)

Ministers

Foreign Affairs: Hon. Antonio Segni
Interior: Hon. Giuseppe Spataro
Justice: Hon. Guido Gonella
Budget: Hon. Fernando Tambroni
Finance: Senator Giuseppe Trabucchi
Treasury: Hon. Paolo Emilio Taviani
Defence: Hon. Giulio Andreotti
Public Instruction: Senator Giuseppe Medici
Public Works: Hon. Giuseppe Togni
Agriculture and Forests: Hon. Mariano Rumor
Transport: Hon. Fiorentino Sullo (*m*), Hon. Mario Ferrari Aggradi (*interim*)
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Antonio Maxia
Industry and Trade: Hon. Emilio Colombo
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Benigno Zaccagnini
Foreign Trade: Hon. Mario Martinelli
Merchant Marine: Senator Angelo Raffaele Jervolino
State Participations: Hon. Mario Ferrari Aggradi
Public Health: Senator Camillo Giardina
Tourism and Entertainment: Senator Umberto Tupini

Undersecretaries

Presidency of the Council of Ministers: Hon Alberto Folchi (*Sec. Council of Ministers*), Hon. Gustavo De Meo (*Press and Information*), Hon. Renato Tozzi Condivi (*Bureaucratic Reform*)
Foreign Affairs: Hon. Carlo Russo, Hon. Ferdinando Storchi
Interior: Senator Guido Bisori, Hon. Oscar Luigi Scalfaro
Justice: Hon. Lorenzo Spallino
Budget: Hon. Angelo De Luca
Finance: Hon. Giacomo Piola, Hon. Michele Troisi
Treasury: Senator Alfonso De Giovine, Hon. Lorenzo Natali, Hon. Guglielmo Schiratti, Hon. Alfonso Tesauro
Defence: Hon. Alfredo Amatucci, Hon. Giovanni Bovetti, Hon. Enrico Roselli
Public Instruction: Hon. Maria Badaloni, Senator Angelo Di Rocco
Public Works: Hon. Crescenzo Mazza, Hon. Tommaso Spasari
Agriculture and Forests: Senator Giuseppe Salari, Hon. Giacomo Sedati
Transport: Hon. Salvatore Foderaro, Hon. Calogero Volpe
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Augusto Cesare Fanelli, Hon. Remo Gaspari
Industry and Trade: Hon. Nullo Biaggi (*n*), Hon. Filippo Micheli
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Salvatore Mannironi, Hon. Cristoforo Pezzini
Foreign Trade: Senator Antonio Pecoraro
Merchant Marine: Hon. Francesco Turnaturi
State Participations: Senator Giuseppe Garlato
Public Health: Hon. Angela Gotelli
Tourism and Entertainment: Hon. Domenico Magrí, Hon. Gabriele Semeraro

(*h*) Resigned on February 23, 1959.
(*i*) Resigned April 9, 1960
(*l*) Resigned April 8, 1960
(*m*) Resigned April 10, 1960
(*n*) Resigned April 8, 1960.

IIIrd. FANFANI CABINET
(July 26, 1960 - February 2, 1962)

Prime Minister: Hon. Amintore Fanfani
Deputy Prime Minister: Senator Attilio Piccioni
Ministers without Portfolio: Senator Tiziaino Tessitori (*Bureaucratic Reform*), Hon. Giulio Pastore (*Southern Italy Development Fund*), Hon. Giuseppe Codacci Pisanelli (*Parliamentary Liaison*)

Ministers

Foreign Affairs: Hon. Antonio Segni
Interior: Hon. Mario Scelba
Justice: Hon. Guido Gonella
Budget: Hon. Giuseppe Pella
Finance: Senator Giuseppe Trabucchi
Treasury: Hon. Paolo Emilio Taviani
Defence: Hon. Giulio Andreotti
Public Instruction: Senator Giacinto Bosco
Public Works: Hon. Benigno Zaccagnini
Agriculture and Forests: Hon. Mariano Rumor
Transport: Hon. Giuseppe Spataro
Posts and Telecommunications: Senator Lorenzo Spallino
Industry and Trade: Hon. Emilio Colombo
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Fiorentino Sullo
Foreign Trade: Hon. Mario Martinelli
Merchant Marine: Senator Angelo Raffaele Jervolino
State Participations: Senator Giorgio Bo
Public Health: Hon. Camillo Giardina
Tourism and Entertainment: Hon. Alberto Folchi

Undersecretaries

Presidency of the Council of Ministers: Hon. Umberto delle Fave (*Sec. Council of Ministers*), Senator Giovanni Giraudo (*Press and Information*), Hon. Renato Tozzi Condivi (*Bureaucratic Reform*)
Foreign Affairs: Hon. Carlo Russo, Hon. Ferdinando Storchi
Interior: Hon. Oscar Luigi Scalfaro, Senator Guido Bisori
Justice: Hon. Francesco Maria Dominedò
Budget: Senator Enrico Roselli, Senator Giuseppe Cerulli Irelli
Finance: Hon. Michele Troisi, Senator Antonio Pecoraro
Treasury: Hon. Lorenzo Natali, Hon. Dino Penazzato, Senator Alfonso De Giovine
Defence: Hon. Giovanni Bovetti, Hon. Italo Giulio Caiati, Hon. Vittorio Pugliese
Public Instruction: Hon. Maria Badaloni, Hon. Giovanni Elkan
Public Works: Hon. Domenico Magrì, Senator Tommaso Spasari
Agriculture and Forests: Senator Giuseppe Salari, Hon. Giacomo Sedati
Transport: Hon. Cesare Angelini, Hon. Calogero Volpe
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Dario Antoniozzi, Hon. Remo Gaspari
Industry and Trade: Hon. Filippo Micheli, Hon. Nullo Biaggi
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Ettore Calvi, Senator Cristoforo Pezzini
Foreign Trade: Hon. Tarcisio Longoni
Merchant Marine: Hon. Salvatore Mannironi
State Participations: Hon. Eugenio Gatto
Public Health: Hon. Crescenzo Mazza
Tourism and Entertainment: Hon. Renzo Helfer, Hon. Gabriele Semeraro

IVth. FANFANI CABINET
(February 21, 1962)

Prime Minister: Hon. Amintore Fanfani
Deputy Prime Minister: Senator Attilio Piccioni
Ministers without Portfolio: Hon. Giulio Pastore (*Southern Italy Development Fund*), Hon. Giuseppe Codacci Pisanelli (*Parliamentary Liaison*), Senator Giuseppe Medici (*Bureaucratic Reform*)

Ministers

Foreign Affairs: Hon. Antonio Segni (1)
Interior: Hon. Paolo Emilio Taviani
Justice: Senator Giacinto Bosco
Budget: Hon. Ugo La Malfa
Finance: Senator Giuseppe Trabucchi
Treasury: Hon. Roberto Tremelloni
Defence: Hon. Giulio Andreotti
Public Instruction: Hon. Luigi Gui
Public Works: Hon. Fiorentino Sullo
Agriculture and Forests: Hon. Mariano Rumor
Transport: Hon. Bernardo Mattarella
Posts and Telecommunications: Senator Lorenzo Spallino (2)
Industry and Trade: Hon. Emilio Colombo
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Virginio Bertinelli
Foreign Trade: Hon. Luigi Preti
Merchant Marine: Hon. Cino Macrelli
State Participations: Senator Giorgio Bo
Public Health: Senator Angelo Raffaele Jervolino
Tourism and Entertainment: Hon. Alberto Folchi

Undersecretaries

Presidency of the Council of Ministers: Hon. Umberto Delle Fave (*Sec. Council of Ministers and Information*), Senator Giovanni Giraudo (*Bureaucratic Reform*)
Foreign Affairs: Hon. Carlo Russo, Hon. Giuseppe Lupis
Interior: Senator Guido Bisori, Hon. Egidio Ariosto
Justice: Hon. Salvatore Mannironi
Budget: Hon. Giancarlo Matteotti, Hon. Dino Penazzato
Finance: Hon. Filippo Micheli, Senator Antonio Pecoraro
Treasury: Hon. Giovanni Bovetti, Hon. Augusto Cesare Fanelli, Hon. Lorenzo Natali
Defence: Hon. Gustavo De Meo, Senator Guglielmo Pelizzo, Hon. Vittorio Pugliese
Public Instruction: Hon. Guido Cecchetini, Senator Tommaso Spasari
Agriculture and Forestes: Hon. Ludovico Camangi, Hon. Giacomo Sedati
Trasport: Hon. Luigi Angrisani, Hon. Renato Cappugi
Posts and Telecommunications: Hon. Crescenzo Mazza, Senator Corrado Terranova
Industry and Trade: Hon. Vittorio Cervone, Hon. Remo Gaspari
Labour and Social Security: Hon. Ettore Calvi, Senator Giuseppe Salari
Foreign Trade: Hon. Ferdinando Storchi
Merchant Marine: Hon. Francesco Maria Dominedò
State Participations: Hon. Eugenio Gatto
Public Health: Hon. Natale Santero
Tourism and Entertainment: Hon. Dario Antoniozzi, Hon. Ruggero Lombardi

MINISTERS AND UNDERSECRETARIES OF THE 4th. FANFANI CABINET

Ministry of the Budget

Ugo La Malfa, *Deputy, member of the mixed Parliamentary Group, Minister Secretary of State.*

Born at Palermo on May 16, 1903, Signor La Malfa is a graduate in diplomatic science. He joined the clandestine movement in 1924 and rendered valuable services during the war in Ethiopia and the second world war. As a result of his opposition to the fascist authorities he was arrested. Together with several other

(1) On may 29, 1962 Senator Attilio Piccioni was appointed Minister.
(2) On may 29, 1962 Senator Guido Corbellini was appointed Minister.

anti-fascist elements, Signor La Malfa founded the Action Party in 1941 and, upon his return from Switzerland in July 1943, he represented this on the National Council of Liberation. Strongly opposing the Badoglio Government, he was included in the Bonomi Cabinet.

He has been an official of the Research Department of the Banco di Sicilia and the Banca Commerciale Italiana, has made several contributions to the « Enciclopedia Italiana », Minister of Transport in the Parri Government of 1945 and Minister of Foreign Trade in the first De Gasperi Government of the same year. He transferred to the Republican Party in 1946 and was elected to the Constituent Assembly.

Deputy Governor of the International Monetary Fund and member of the Strasbourg Assembly in 1948, Signor La Malfa was re-elected to Parliament for the Bologna-Ravenna-Ferrara-Forli constituency. In 1948, he led an Italian delegation to Moscow for discussions over trade agreements and war reparations to be paid to Russia. In the sixth De Gasperi Government he became Minister without Portfolio and then Minister for Foreign Trade, a position he also held in the seventh De Gasperi Cabinet. Signor La Malfa was returned to Parliament in 1953 and 1958 for the same constituency.

GIANCARLO MATTEOTTI, *Deputy, member of the Social Democrat Parliamentary Group, Minister Secretary of State.*

Born at Rome on May 19, 1918, son of Giacomo Matteotti, one of the organizers of the clandestine movement throughout the whole of the war both at Rome and in Venetia, Signor Matteotti played a leading role in reforming the Italian Socialist Party. He was a member of the National Committee of Liberation of Venetia during the 1945 uprising. Secretary of the Socialist Federation of Rovigo he has also been editor of the newspaper « La Lotta ».

Elected to the Constituent Assembly in 1946 as the representative of the P.S.I.U.P. for the constituency of Verona, Signor Matteotti was President of the Provincial Federation of the Cooperative Movement and was responsible for early attempts at land reclamation in the Po Delta. He was returned to Parliament again in 1948 for the same constituency and nominated Vice-Secretary of the Italian Socialist Party but transferred to the Social Democrat Party a short time afterwards. Signor Matteotti was elected again in 1953 and 1958.

Ministry of the Treasury

ROBERTO TREMELLONI, *Deputy, member of the Social Democrat Parliamentary Group, Minister Secretary of State.*

Born at Milan on October 30, 1900, Signor Tremelloni is a graduate in Economic and Commercial Science.

Elected to the Constituent Assembly as the P.S.I.U.P. member for Milan, he was Undersecretary for Trade from July 1946 to January 1947 in the third De Gasperi Government, resigning when he joined the Italian Workers Socialist Party. In 1947, he represented Italy at the Paris Conference on the Marshall Plan. Signor Tremelloni was Minister of Industry and Trade from 1947 to 1948 in the fourth De Gasperi Cabinet and, on May 24, 1948, was appointed Minister without Portfolio authorized to act as Chairman of the Reconstruction Committee and the E.R.P. Executive Committee. In 1951, he proposed a parliamentary enquiry on unemployment and was made Chairman of the special committee that was formed. He also presided over the Committee responsible for drafting legislation on flood damage and was responsible for the law introducing the « Thirty Year Plan for Water Control ».

Signor Tremelloni has written many articles for newspapers and periodicals, took charge of the Research Department of the Federation of Labour for a period

and has been a director of several industrial enterprises. His books include « The International Labour Organization », « The Textile Industry », « History of Contemporary Italian Industry » and many articles and essays on trade union questions, municipalization and European economic unity.

Re-elected to Parliament in 1953, he was Minister of Finance from 1954 to 1955 in the Scelba Government and compiled the law on income tax. In 1956, Signor Tremelloni was appointed member of the Board of the Institute of Industrial Reconstruction. A successful candidate in the General Elections of 1958, he became Chairman of the Azienda Elettrica Municipale of Milan in 1961 and Chairman of the Parliamentary Committee on Fair Trading, an office from which he withdraw upon his appointment as Minister.

Ministry of Defence

GUGLIELMO PELIZZO, *Senator, member of the Christian Democrat Parliamentary Group, Undersecretary of State.*

Born at Faedis (Udine) in 1904, he is a lawyer by profession. Signor Pelizzo has been a local Secretary of the Italian Popular Party and is a member of the Catholic Action. He was elected Senator in 1953 for the Friuli-Venetia Julia constituency and was again returned to Parliament in 1958.

Ministry of Public Instruction

CARLO SCARASCIA, *Deputy, member of the Christian Democrat Parliamentary Group, Undersecretary of State.*

Born in Rome in 1920, a lawyer by profession, he was provincial Political Secretary of the Christian Democrat Party from 1946 to 1948. Signor Scarascia was decorated during the war for bravery in the field. He was elected to Parliament in 1953 for the Lecce-Brindisi-Taranto constituency and again in 1958.

Ministry of Agriculture and Forests

LUDOVICO CAMANGI, *Deputy, member of the Republican Parliamentary Group, Undersecretary of State.*

Born in 1903 at Sora (Frosinone), Signor Camangi is an engineer by profession. In 1924 he was appointed Secretary of the Republican Youth Federation of Latium, became a member of the Constituent Assembly in 1946, elected to Parliament in 1948 for the Rome-Latina-Viterbo-Frosinone constituency and appointed Undersecretary of State for Public Works. He was re-elecetd in the 1953 and 1958 General Elections for the same constituency.

Ministry of Transport

RENATO CAPPUGI, *Deputy, member of the Christian Democrat Parliamentary Group, Undersecretary of State.*

Born at Florence in 1901, he was appointend Vice-President of the National Health Insurance Institute in 1953 but has now resigned. Secretary and President of the Catholic Youth Movement of Florence, he was Vice-President of the Federation of Catholic Men of the diocese of Florence for many years. Signor Cappugi has also held various offices in the Italian Popular Party and was an executive of the Catholic Railway Employees Union and member of the clandestine Committee that founded the Christian Democrat Party at Florence. He has also been a member of the Administrative Committee of the Italian State Railways, a member of the National Council of the Italian Workers Catholic Action and is currently a member of the Central Federation of the European Federalist Move-

ment. Elected to the Constituent Assembly for the Florence constituency, he has been returned to Parliament in the 1948, 1953 and 1958 General Elections.

Ministry of Industry and Trade

VITTORIO CERVONE, *Deputy, member of the Christian Democrat Parliamentary Group, Undersecretary of State.*

Born at Gaeta (Latina) in 1917, he was Secretary of the Christian Democrat Party branch in Latina Province from 1946 to 1953 and was mayor of Latina from 1951 to 1953. Former Commissioner of the Pontina Land Reclamation Agency, Signor Cervone was also National Councillor at the Christian Democrat Party Congress at Trento. President of the National Union of Land Reclamation Agencies, he was returned to Parliament for the Rome constituency in 1953 and 1958.

Ministry of the Merchant Marine

CINO MACRELLI, *Senator, member of the mixed Parliamentary Group, Minister Secretary of State.*

Born on January 21, 1887 at Sarsina (Forlì), he is a lawyer by profession. He joined the Republican Party at a very early age and was editor of the « Popolano » of Cesena. Member of the Communal and Provincial Councils, he was wounded and taken prisoner during the first world war. Elected for the constituency of Bologna in the 26th. Legislature and for Emilia in the 27th. Legislature, Signor Macrelli ha also been Commissioner of the Election Committee. Interned by the Fascists, he helped organize the clandestine movement from 1943 onwards and represented the Italian Republican Party on the National Committee of Liberation. In 1946 he was elected to the Constituent Assembly for the constituency of Bologna. Signor Macrelli was Minister without Portfolio in the second De Gasperi Cabinet and was mayor of Cesena for more than a year. Having been elected on three occasions during the pre-war period, he was created a Senator by right in 1948. Re-elected in 1953, he was appointed Deputy Speaker of the Chamber of Deputies in March 1954 and Chairman of the « mixed » parliamentary group, an office he again held after re-election in 1958.

Ministry of Public Health

NATALE SANTERO, *Senator, member of the Christian Democratic Parliamentary Group, Undersecretary of State.*

Born in 1893 at Saliceto (Cuneo), he is a surgeon and professor of surgical pathology. Member of the National Council of the European Federalist Movement, Signor Santero has represented Italy on the Consultive Assembly of the Council of Europe, the Assembly of the Western European Union and the European Parliamentary Assembly. He was elected in 1948, 1953 and 1958 for the constituency of Busto Arsizio.

Ministry of Tourism and Entertainment

RUGGERO LOMBARDI, *Deputy, member of the Christian Democrat Parliamentary Group, Undersecretary of State.*

Born in 1898 at Lucera (Foggia), he is a lawyer by profession. Member of the Italian Popular Party, Signor Lombardi was appointed Provincial Secretary of the Christian Democrat Party in 1943 and became a member of the party's Executive Committee in 1946. He was elected for the constituency of Venice-Treviso in 1948, 1953 and 1958.

ITALIAN EMIGRATION OVER A CENTURY

Various Aspects and Characteristics

From the time that Italy reached political unity it has exported something that it has had in abundance and which it could never fully employ: manpower. Even before unification, migration had become an established fact, especially in the northern regions, and there was a strong movement towards neighbouring states of both a permanent and seasonal nature. But it was small compared to later development.

The first figures on emigration were obtained by Leone Carpi during the last century and related to the period 1869/1876 (Table I). It will be seen that a reasonably high level had been reached in 1869, with about 90% of legal expatriates and about 10% illegal. The total was more than 140,000 but the figure contracted during the years that followed, with a large percentage (from 55% to 70%) of temporary emigrants included in repatriations.

Table I - Italian Emigration from 1869 to 1876

YEAR	Legal Emigration		Illegal Emigration	
	Expatriates	Repatriates	Expatriates	Repatriates
1869	127,757	—	15,352	—
1870	101,815	—	8,643 (a)	—
1871	111,411	—	11,068	—
1872	140,680	82,268	5,585	284
1873	139,860	79,187	11,921	7,603
1874	91,239	65,937	17,362	13,061
1875	76,095	60,829	27,253	22,418
1876	89,024	—	25,188	18,066

(a) Data from 36 provinces are missing.

During the next ten years, and mainly from 1886 onwards, there was an enormous rise in the number of persons seeking employment abroad (Table II) (1).

(1) It should be remembered that this Table and Tables III and IV cannot be truly compared from a statistical viewpoint since surveys have been conducted as follows: *a)* up to 1913, on movement of Italians who emigrated because of extreme poverty; *b)* from 1914 to 1927 on movement of Italians who emigrated in order to find manual labour or join relations who had emigrated earlier;

Table II - Italian Emigration from 1869 to 1960
(averages for expatriation and repatriation)

YEAR	European nations and Mediterranean		Overseas Nations		Total		Expatriates per 100,000 inhabs.
	Expat.	Repat.	Expat.	Repat.	Expat.	Repat.	
1869–70	99,272	—	21,767	—	121,039	—	*469*
1871–75	(a) *95,976*	—	(a) *25,101*	—	126,795	(b) *83,888*	*466*
1876–80	82,201	—	26,596	—	108,797	(c) *73,611*	*390*
1881–85	95,146	—	58,995	—	154,141	—	*530*
1886–90	90,693	—	131,005	—	221,698	—	*774*
1891–95	109,067	—	147,443	—	256,510	—	827
1896–900....	148,533	—	161,003	—	309,536	—	967
1901–05	244,808	—	309,242	(d) *136,071*	554,050	—	*1,685*
1906–10	257,594	—	393,694	200,072	651,288	—	*1,928*
1911–14	284,544	—	364,716	201,991	649,250	—	*1,843*
1915–18	51,002	—	39,420	58,218	90,422	—	*199*
1919–20	176,381	—	257,536	84,165	433,917	—	1,196
1921–25	172,360	78,967	131,082	64,320	303,442	143,281	*787*
1926–30	122,872	75,409	89,373	56,938	212,245	132,347	*529*
1931–35	63,447	39,902	28,181	27,306	91,628	67,208	*219*
1936–40	29,174	40,824	19,329	9,940	48,503	50,764	172
1941–42 (e) .	8,527	32,949	—	351	8,527	33,300	*18*
1946–50	130,837	62,063	95,707	13,939	226,544	76,002	*492*
1951–55	141,005	82,376	132,261	25,812	273,266	108,188	*573*
1956–60	249,791	174,754	97,003	25,790	346,794	200,544	*699*

(a) Average for 1873-1875; data for 1871 and 1872 are lacking.

(b) Average for 1872-75; data for 1871 lacking.

(c) Data for 1876 only.

(d) Average for 1902-1905; data for 1901 lacking.

(e) Data for 1943-45 lacking; temporary emigration to Germany for employment in agriculture and industry under special agreements not included.

Figures for emigration reached a very high level over the last fifteen years of the 19th. century and the beginning of the 20th. century, with annual totals of over half a million from 1901 to 1903, from 1905 to 1907, and from 1909 to 1913. More than 700,000 persons emigrated in 1905, 1907 and 1912, 800,000 in 1906 and almost 900,000 in 1913, about 2-2½% of the entire population.

c) from 1928 to 1942 on the movement of Italians who emigrated to seek manual or clerical employment or join relations who had emigrated earlier; d) from 1943 onwards, on the movement of Italians who took up residence abroad to exercise a profession, art or trade, to join relatives or any other reason or, maintaining residence in Italy, emigrated temporarily for reasons of work or to join relatives. Expatriates up to 1927 are termed « emigrants », those between 1928 and 1942 are termed « workers » and those from 1943 onwards are termed « expatriates for reasons of employment or because joining relations ».

Surveys on emigration have been carried out first by the Ministry of Interior, followed by the General Commissioner's Department for Emigration, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Department for Italians Resident Abroad) and, finally, by the Institute of Statistics.

This efflux was, however, accompanied by repatriation and, between 1904 and 1915, more than 1.5 million persons returned from the United States alone. During the same period, about 500,000 returned from Argentina and 225,000 from Brazil.

The first world year, naturally, led to a sharp drop in emigration — 200 expatriates per 100,000 inhabitants (mostly women and children joining relatives), against 2,000 in 1906/10 and 2,500 in 1913. But the trend rose again in the early post-war years up to 1924 when several nations (first among them the United States) imposed limitations on emigration. These circumstances and improved possibilities of employment in Italy resulted in low figures registered during the 1930's. Between 1938 and 1941, emigration chiefly consisted of persons transferring to Germany for employment in agriculture and industry under special agreements.

At the end of the second world war, Italian emigration began to increase again, particularly that of a temporary or seasonal nature. Figures gradually rose and have now reached a percentage of 700 expatriates per 100,000 inhabitants over the past fifteen years. Italy is now encouraging its emigration policy, justly claiming that liberalization of trade and circulation of capital should be accompanied by the removal of restrictions on movement of manpower.

Table III - Emigrants per Sex and Age (*per 100 emigrants*)

YEAR	Male	Female	Under 15 years.	YEAR	Male	Female	Under 15 years.
1876–1880	*85*	*15*	*9.8*	(1916–1918)	(52)	(48)	(—)
1881–1885	*85*	*15*	*9.3*	1921–1925	*70*	*30*	*12.2*
1886–1890	*79*	*21*	*13.8*	1926–1930	*73*	*27*	*11.8*
1891–1895	*77*	*23*	*15.4*	1931–1935	*61*	*39*	*16.3*
1896–1900	*80*	*20*	*11.6*	1936–1940	*56*	*44*	*17.7*
1901–1905	*83*	*17*	*10.0*	1941–1945 (a)	57	43	21.6
1906–1910	*82*	*18*	*10.4*	1946–1950	*58*	*42*	*14.0*
1911–1915	*77*	*23*	*12.4*	1951–1955	*68*	*32*	*12.4*
1916–1920	*59*	*41*	*14.4*	1956–1960	*67*	*33*	—
1915–1918)	(55)	(45)	(17.3)				

(a) Partial averages for 1941 and 1942 only; data for successive three years lacking.

Regional composition of the migratory movement has varied considerably (Table IV). Venetia has generally headed the list of expatriates/ population ratios. It was closely followed by Piedmont only in 1876 and, in 1911/14 by Abruzzi, Calabria, Basilicata, Sicily and Marches. In 1921/25, Piedmont again moved close to the figures registered for Venetia, followed by Calabria.

Table IV - Emigrants per Region
(Emigrants per 100,000 inhabs)

REGION	1876	Average 1911-14	Average 1921-25	REGION	1876	Average 1911-14	Average 1921-25
Piedmont	1,046	1,794	1,272	Latium	27	1,181	190
Lombardy	588	1,473	665	Abruzzi	28	2,857	950
Venetia	1,247	3,111	1,587	Campania	112	1,811	530
Emilia	157	1,197	453	Apulia	23	1,256	392
Liguria	408	638	515	Basilicata	211	2,510	1,038
Tuscany	298	1,395	598	Calabria	73	2,778	1,221
Marches	11	2,158	882	Sicily	45	2,270	648
Umbria	54	1,910	507	Sardinia	4	935	299

The long-standing principle of transferring to Italian communities already established abroad and local preferences have meant that, in general, emigrants from Piedmont have moved to the European nations (overseas countries are preferred in the province of Alessandria), as also those from Lombardy, Emilia and Umbria. Vene-

Table V - Percentage Distribution of Emigrants par Destination

DESTINATION	1876	1886	1896	1906	1916	1925	Average 1938-40	Average 1951-55	Average Average
United States and Canada	1.33	17.06	17.52	45.78	47.75	11.23	16.3	14.2	14.0
Argentina	3.18	21.77	18.22	13.61	2.80	18.92	10.0	11.9	3.2
Brazil	—	6.75	25.93	3.53	1.07	2.63	1.6	4.5	1.6
Central America	(a) 13.52	0.29	0.23	0.20	0.05	0.35	—	—	—
Other American States	—	3.06	1.87	0.52	0.29	1.30	—	—	—
Asia, Africa and Australasia	2.57	3.60	1.79	2.93	2.32	4.41	—	—	—
Other Overseas Countries	—	—	—	—	—	—	6.2	21.0	12.2
Great Britain and Ireland	0.24	0.21	0.16	0.55	1.62	0.26	—	—	—
France	31.72	21.28	5.84	7.93	31.15	51.96	9.6	14.2	25.1
Belgium, Holland and Luxembourg	0.22	0.08	0.09	0.32	0.01	1.66	(b) 0.4	(b) 6.2	(c) 4.1
Switzerland	17.15	2.59	5.96	10.16	12.34	4.87	8.5	25.3	29.3
Germany	8.85	2.27	5.61	8.67	—	0.60	(d) 37.8	(e) 0.2	(e) 6.5
Austria and Hungary	18.87	19.27	13.38	5.01	—	1.01	—	—	—
Spain and Portugal	0.81	0.53	0.18	0.10	0.28	0.25	—	—	—
Balkan States	0.95	1.07	2.92	0.48	0.27	0.46	—	—	—
Other States of Northern and Eastern Europe	0.59	0.17	0.30	0.21	0.05	0.09	—	—	—
Other European States and the Mediterranean Basin	—	—	—	—	—	—	9.6	2.5	4.0
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

(a) Expatriates to Central and South America, except those to Rio de la Plata.
(b) Belgium only.
(c) Belgium and Luxembourg.
(d) Not including industrial and agricultural workers expatriated to Germany under special agreements.
(e) German Federal Republic.

tians appear to prefer Europe with the exception of those from the provinces of Padua and Rovigo during the last decade of the 19th. century. Similarly, Tuscans normally have transferred to European nations, excluding those of the Lucca area. Emigration from Sardinia has its own peculiar characteristics and, because of tradition and interests, is directed towards France, Algeria and Tunisia. Of the Italian provinces, Grosseto, Leghorn and Siena have constantly had the lowest percentage of emigrants while Belluno, Udine and Salerno have extremely high figures in relation to the local population.

The eventual destination of emigrants has varied over the century in question. At the begining of the present century, the United States absorbed the majority and the United States and Canada were the goal of about half Italian emigrants in 1906. About one fifth moved to Argentina in 1886 and in 1925 but emigration to this country is now very limited. The same may be said for Brazil. Venezuela was a favoured nation between the end of the second world war and 1957/58 and a large number of Italians have emigrated to Australia in recent years.

Although most of the European nations have attracted Italian emigrants, generally on a temporary basis, the leadership, with but few exceptions has been always held by France and Switzerland.

Table VI - Emigrants' Remittances from 1890 to 1925
(*Five year averages from 1891*)

YEAR	Remittances through the Banco di Napoli		Deposits with the Cassa di Risparmio		International Postal Orders (in million lire)
	Total (million lire)	Average Remittance (lire)	Total (million lire)	Average Deposit (lire)	
1890.....	—	—	p.087	673	—
1891–9595	—	—	0.454	619	—
1896–1900	—	—	2.98	636	—
1901–1905	29.9	179	22.82	814	101
1906–1910	39.1	237	57.04	834	228
1911–1915	95.4	300	69.58	1,032	238
1916–1920	426.0	824	542.40	2,838	82
1921–1925	605.6	1,610	642.54	6,998	218

This brief summary of Italian emigration cannot conclude without a reference to emigrants' remittances since these have always benefitted economy. Although the sums officially quoted are far from representing the total sent or brought into the country by

emigrants, Table VI shows that, during the first ten years of the present century, remittances averaged a total of 250 million lire (equal to one hundred milliard in current lire). In 1911/15, this figure rose to 400 million lire (130/140 billion in current lire) and to more than 2 billion lire in 1921/25 (about 150 billion current lire).

During the past few years, official figures for emigrants' remittances have shown a regular increase, reaching totals that are comparatively high.

Year	*Total (U.S. dolls.)*
1952	102,019,000
1953	118,842,000
1954	114,073,000
1955	124,692,000
1956	154,489,000
1957	187,312,000
1958	267,631,000
1959	246,414,000
1960	288,482,000

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THE ECONOMIC SITUATION IN ITALY

Production, Cost of Living, Trade and Finance

With the end of the summer slump, Italian economy revealed new signs of recovery which — superimposed on an already very favourable economic situation — led to results which were entirely satisfactory and — in any case — better than those which were forecast at the beginning of the year in view of the pause in expansion and the stagnation which occurred in certain productive sectors.

Particularly satisfactory is the agricultural situation: contrary to what occurred in 1960, results of the harvests were fairly good, and in certain cases, even good. This meant that the gross saleable product showed a decisive improvement, all the more so considering that the prices of agricultural products have shown, and are showing, a marked stability. As regards the evolution of the industrial sector, in the first eight months of 1961 there was an increase in production of 8.4% over the same period of last year, the results of which, in turn, had already shown a marked increase compared with those of 1959. Naturally, this total result did not appear to the same extent in all branches of production. In general, industries producing capital goods are those which are most benefitted by the economic situation, as a result of a high increase in investment. Slightly calmer is the situation in the field of consumer goods in view of the fact that the expansion is always slower. The tertiary activities, in turn, have shown, and continue to show, a decisively favourable development. But even more favourable is the progress in foreign trade; both exports and imports, in the first eight months of 1961, were more than 11% higher than in the same period of 1960. There was some uncertainty ot the beginning of the year, but afterwards the export currents grew gradually stronger, a fact which is all the more significant in that certain markets, for example, the British market, no longer show a strong inclination towards Italian products as was the case some time ago. If then, alongside the data concerning goods, expressed by the trade balance, we also consider those referring to services (freight, tourism, emigrants' remittances, etc.), we note that the balance of payments shows a no less satisfactory behaviour, so that the deficit in the commercial balance (489 milliard lire in the period in question), is amply compensated by the surplus on invisible items: altogether, there appears a ba-

lance of payments surplus, and thus a further increase in exchange reserves (which already at the end of the first half of the post year had reached a total of 3,108 million dollars, against 2,098 million at the same date in 1960).

Another interesting aspect of the present economic situation is the continual decrease in unemployment. Latest official data, in fact, show that persons registered as unemployed at the end of the month of June 1961 were 1,283,452, with a reduction of 122,866 units, equal to 8.7%, compared with the same date in 1960. This contraction is the consequence of a reduction of 77,171 units, equal to 7.9% of unemployed in the true sense of the word (persons who have lost a previous employment), and of 45,695 units, equal to 10.7% of persons under 21, of persons discharged from the armed forces and others secking a first employment.

Industrial Production. In the first eight months of 1961 the average index for industrial production was 192.6, showing an increase of 8.4% compared the first eight months of 1960, which was 177.7.

In particular, the index numbers for the three branches of industry which make up the general index, were as follows: mining industries, 187.8, with an increase of 7.7% compared with the average index number for the first eight months of the previous year; manufacturing industries, 194.8, with an increase of 8.5%; electricity and

INDEX NUMBER OF ITALIAN INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION
(1953 = 100)

	First 8 months	
	1960	1961
Mining & quarrying	174,3	187,8
Manufacturing industries	179,5	194,8
Electricity & gas	156,7	167,1
General index number	177,7	192,6

Source: Central Institute of Statistics.

gas industries, 167.1, with an increase of 6.6% over the average index for the first eight months of 1960.

In the mining and quarrying industries, during the first eight months of 1961, coal production increased by 30.9% compared with the first eight months of 1960; the production of liquid and gas

fuels by 4.8% and that of the other minerals by 14.9%, while the production of metal ores fell, in the same period, by 1.2%.

In the manufacturing industries, for the textile group (silk, cotton, wool, hard and sundry textile fibres), and for the engineering group (construction of non-electrical machinery, etc., electrical machinery, precision engineering), the average index numbers for the first eight months of 1961, compared with those for the first eight months of 1960, showed a reduction of 0.8% in the case of the former and an increase of 15.8% for the latter.

For the fourteen remaining classes considered in the manufacturing branch, the index numbers show the following increases in the first eight months of 1961 compared with the first eight months of the previous year: food and allied industries, 4.9%; hides and leather, 11%; boots and shoes, 11.9%; timber (excluding furniture), 9.2%; furniture, 4.0% metallurgical, 8.8%; transport, 7.4%; non-metallic ores, 11.0%; chemical industries, 9.2%; oil and coal by-products, 11.2%; rubber, 11.8%; cellulose for textile purposes and artificial and synthetic textile fibres, 7.1%; paper and board, 8.7%; tobacco, 0.5%.

The production of electric power in the first eight months of 1961 increased by 8.3% compared with the corresponding period of the previous year, while natural gas, excluding the distribution of methane as such showed, in the same period, a reduction of 5.0%.

During the month of August the metallurgical industry showed the usual seasonal contraction: however it did show increases — considerable in the case of some products — compared with the same month of 1960. In fact, the production of pig iron rose from 261 thousand tons in August 1960 to 270 thousand tons in August 1961; steel output rose from 630 to 665 thousand tons, production of rolled plates rose to 485 thousand tons against 479 in 1960 and, lastly, output of ferrous alloys increased from 16 to 17 thousand tons.

As a result of the marked expansion of metallurgical production during the first part of 1961, the results for the first eight months of the year are decidedly better than those for the same period of 1960. In fact, increases in production were as follows: from 1,771 thousand to 2,012 thousand tons — that is 13.6% — for pig-iron; from 5,427 thousand to 5,990 thousand and to 5,990 thousand tons — 10.4% — for steel; from 4.299 thousand to 4.672 thousand tons — that is 8.7% — for rolled plates; from 93 thousand to 106 thousand tons — that is 14.0% — for ferrous alloys.

The Italian motor industry continued to reveal a slowdown in the rate of expansion of production which has now been in force for a

long time: at the end of the first nine months of 1961, 555,419 had been produced, against 490,255 in the same period of 1960. The resulting increase — equal to 13.3% — was considerably lower than that of 38.9% recorded in 1960 as compared with the first nine months of 1959, and is the result of a weakening in the rate of increase in the production of both motor vehicles (+ 11.0% against + 37.1% in the first nine months of 1960 over the same period of 1959), and commercial and industrial (+ 48.8% against + 70.4%), and a contraction in the production of public transport vehicles of 17.0% in the first nine months of 1961 compared with the same period of 1960.

Italian Output of Motor-Vehicles
(*Number*)

MONTH	Private vehicles		Industrial Vehicles		Coaches and Buses		Total	
	1960	1961	1960	1961	1960	1961	1960	1961
January	40,758	47,000	2,225	4,872	271	299	43,254	52,171
February	51,941	50,922	2,897	5,126	303	299	55,141	56,347
March	58,162	62,893	3,552	6,152	368	293	62,082	69,348
April	54,159	56,501	3,686	5,043	336	274	58,181	61,818
May	58,111	64,970	4,029	5,848	335	263	62,475	71,081
June	50,988	59,881	3,822	5,334	179	141	54,989	65,356
July	61,536	72,289	4,342	5,991	208	150	66,086	78,430
August	24,225	26,173	2,220	2,509	145	79	31,125	28,761
September	56,458	65,854	4,833	6,133	166	120	61,457	72,107
October	53,134	—	5,079	—	177	—	58,390	—
November	47,800	—	4,366	—	194	—	52,360	—
December	38,635	—	4,741	—	236	—	43,612	—
First 9 months	456,338	506,483	31,606	47,018	2,311	1,918	490,255	555,419
% var. on the previous year.	+ 37.1	+ 11.0	+ 70.4	+ 48.8	+ 51.3	— 17.0	+ 38.9	+ 13.3
Whole year	595,907	—	45,792	—	2,918	—	644,617	—
% var. on the previous year.	+ 26.6	—	+ 64.1	—	+ 32.3	—	+ 28.7	—

Source: ANFIA.

As can be seen from the table, the smaller increase in the productions of motor vehicles is entirely due to the lower receptiveness of the home market: in fact, exports — reaching 179,075 units in the first nine months of 1961 — rose by 11.3% compared with those in the same period of 1960, which, however, were only 2.2% higher than exports in the first nine months of 1959. It is also to be noted, however, that the percentage of exports over production has remained practically unchanged: it was, in fact, 32.8% in the first nine months of 1960, and 32.2% in the same period of 1961.

RATIO BETWEEN PRODUCTION AND EXPORT OF MOTOR VEHICLES
(*Number*)

	First 9 months of 1960				First 9 months of 1961			
	Private Vehicles	Industrial Vehicles	Coaches and Buses	Total	Private Vehicles	Industrial Vehicles	Coaches and Buses	Total
Exportation	156,397	4,147	285	160,829	171,962	6,787	326	179,075
% variations on the previous	+ 1.0	+ 79.1	+ 12.6	+ 2.2	— 9.9	+ 63.7	+ 14.4	+ 11.3
Percentage on production	34.3	13.1	12.3	32.8	33.9	14.4	17.0	32.2

Source: ANFIA.

The evolution of the industrial sector represented by undertakings producing electric power continues to be characterized by marked expansion. Latest statistical data show, in the first eight months of 1961 compared with the first eight months of 1960, an increase of 8.1%, a sign that demand is remaining at a high level. In this period, in fact, 38,136.3 million kwh were produced, against 35,271 million in 1960.

OUTPUT OF ITALIAN ELECTRIC ENERGY (*millions of kwh.*)

	First 8 months	
	1960	1961
Hydroelectric	29,375.4	29,496,8
Thermo-electric	5,535.5	8,639.4
Total	35,271.0	38,136.3

Of the total produced in the period in question, a very high quota was covered by the production of thermo-electric power, about 23%, against only 16% approximately in 1960. This is a consequence of the reduced production of the hydro-electric plants, brought about by the shortage of water resources which characterized the past summer period, particularly in the southern regions and the Islands. In 1961, the hydro-electric plants produced less power than in 1960, in spite of the fact that numerous new ones were brought into operation.

From a territorial point of view, Italian production of electric energy has not changed to any extent the usual ration in the general geographical distribution taken into consideration: worthy of note, however, are the increases — considerable in percentage values — which occurred in production in southern Italy and the Islands during the first eight months of 1961, compared with the same period of 1960.

ITALIAN OUTPUT OF ELECTRIC ENERGY
(*millions of kwh.*)

	First 8 months	
	1960	1961
North Italy	24,335.4	26,289.2
Central Italy	5,522.9	5,868.7
South Italy	3,911.4	4,067.4
Islands	1,481.2	1,910.9
Italy	35,271.0	

Agricultural Production. According to data on harvests already made and forecasts regarding those in progress, this year's will close with a decidedly better balance than that of the 1959-60 year, both with regard to the quantities produced and the progress of the agricultural market, which, generally speaking, showed much more active quotations: in fact, insofar as prices are concerned, these were more sustained, a fact which can only be attributed to an intensification of home demand, since demand on foreign markets showed no marked developments.

Worthy of note, however, is the considerable difference in the course of wholesale prices as against the rise in retail prices, and the consequent benefit to the agricultural sector which was much smaller than that which, at first sight, would seem to be the case. In fact, compared with the basic year (1953), wholesale prices of agricultural products, in the first eight months of 1961, increased by only 1.7%, whilst those of foodstuffs on the retail market rose by 13.2%.

As regards the course followed in the agricultural year, on the basis of the latest official assessments (which can be considered more or less final), the total production of wheat during 1961 amounted to 81.5 mililon quintals, against 68 million in 1960, with an increase of 20.4%. This increase is the net result of a decrease of about 6% in the area sown under wheat and an increase of more than 28% in the average unit yield. According to inital estimates, the production of maize in 1961 will be about 39 million quintals, and that of large-grained rice about 7 million quintals, with an increase, compared with 1960, of 3.5% for maize and no less than 13.1% for large grained rice.

For that matter, almost all harvests have been satisfactory and have shown considerable increases compared with 1960: the only exceptions are sugar beet — the production of which, amounting to 76 million quintals, was 2.8% lower than that of last year — grapes, which at 84 million quintals, also showed a contraction of 2.8%, and

olives, the production of which, totalling 17 million quintals, represents a reduction of 18.9% compared with 1960.

Prices and Cost of Living. The general index for wholesale prices, calculated by the Central Institute of Statistics on the basis 1953 = 100, was, in the month of September 1961, 98.6 against 98.4 in the previous month and 98.4 in the corresponding month of 1960.

Between the month of September 1960 and the corresponding month of 1961, the index numbers for agricultural products fell from 102.1 to 102.0, and those for non-agricultural products rose from 97.5 to 97.7.

The index numbers, according to the economic distribution of the products, show, between September 1960 and September 1961, decreases of 0.2% for consumer goods and 1.6% for ancillary materials, with an increase of 1.6% for capital goods.

In September 1961, the prices of the various products considered in the four commodity sectors show, as compared with the previous month, increases and contractions of varying degree. In particular, an increase appeared in the prices of eggs (12.7%), wine (3.0%), milk and dairy produce (1.6%) and scrap iron (1.4%), while a reduction appeared in the prices of fat stock (2.8%).

Compared with the corresponding month of 1960, against the increases in wine (21.2%), building and kindred materials (4.6%), milk and dairy produce (3.8%); timber (1.9%), and natural and artificial textile fibres (1.5%), reductions occurred in the prices of olive oil (7.5%), eggs (6.5%), fat stock (6.0%), mineral oils (2.8%), cereals (2.7%), non ferrous metals (1.9%) and metallurgical products (1.7%).

The average general index for the first nine months of the year rose from 98.5 points in 1960 to 98.6 points in 1961, showing an increase of 0.1%.

The general index of consumer prices, basis 1953 = 100, calculated by the Central Institute of Statistics, was in the month of September 1961, 118.1 against 117.9 in the previous month and 115.6 in the corresponding month of 1960.

The index of prices in the class « food, beverages and tobacco » recorded an increase of 0.2% compared with the previous month of August, and 0.5% compared with the index for September 1960.

The index for « non edible products and services » showed an increase of 0.2% compared with the previous month, and 4.0% compared with the month of September 1960.

Increases appeared, compared with the preceding month of August, in the price index for eggs (10.4%), butter (0.9%), vegetables

and legumes (0.5%), but there was a fall in the index numbers for fresh and dried fruits (1.6%).

In the first nine months of 1961, the average general index was 117.7, an increase of 1.8% compared with the first nine months of 1960.

The national cost of living index (basis 1938 = 1), calculated by the Central Institute of Statistics, was, in September 1961, 70.48, against 70.49 in the preceding month of August, and 68.51 in September 1960.

In the month of September 1961, the index under the heading foodstuffs was 76.50 against 76.57 in the preceding month of August and 75.18 in the corresponding month of 1960.

The index numbers under other headings did not show any variations worthy of note. Compared with the corresponding month of 1960, increases of a certain entity occurred in index numbers for clothing, housing and sundry expenditure, whilst there was a fall in the index for electricity and fuels. In the first nine months of 1961, the average general index was 70.32, showing an increase of 2.6% compared with the first nine month of 1960.

In the same period of the year 1961, the average index for food was 76.18, with an increase of 1.2% compared with the first nine months of 1960; the index for clothing was 66.25, with an increase of 0.6%; that for electricity and fuels was 40.89, with a reduction of 0.6%, that for housing, 61.72, showing an increase of 13.3%; lastly, the index under the heading « sundry expenditure » was 67.47, with an increase of 3.7% compared with the corresponding period of the previous year.

Foreign Trade. According to the latest statistical results, which refer to imports and exports during the period from 1st January to 31st August 1961, the Italian trade deficit amounted to 488,827 million lire, with an increase of 10.3% compared with the first eight months of the preceding year. It is, however, to be noted that in the last month in question, that is August, the trade deficit amounted to 33,711 million lire, thus showing a reduction compared with the preceding month of July and August 1960. It is also to be noted that the monthly deficit on the trade balance recorded in August is the lowest of the year.

Imports, in the first eight months of 1961, amounted to 2,160,728 million lire, with an increase of 11.5% compared with the same period of 1960. Exports, on the other hand, totalled 7.671,901 million lire, with an improvement of 11.8% compared with the first eight months of 1960.

From an analysis of trade divided into groups of countries, it is

observed that imports from the countries of the European Economic Community amounted to 622,100 million lire (equal to 28.8% of the total) with an increase of 20% compared with the first eight months of last year; exports amounted to 518,800 million lire (equal to 31% of the total), with a increase of 17%.

As a result of these figures, the trade balance with the European Economic Community countries showed a deficit of 32,300 million lire with Western Germany, against 20.900 million lire in the same period of 1960; 73,900 million with France, against 44,600 million; and a surplus of 300 million with Belgium-Luxemburg against a deficit of 5,600 million in the first eight month of last year, and 2,600 million with the Netherlands, against a deficit of 3,600 million.

With the EFTA countries, the Italian trade balance showed a surplus balance of 32,100 million lire, against a deficit of 7,300 million in the period 1st January - 31st August 1960. More precisely, with Switzerland, there was a surplus of 52,500 million lire against 44,500 million, and a deficit of 2,700 million with the United Kingdom against a surplus of 40 million in the same period of 1960.

During the first six months of 1961, the Italian balance of payments showed the following characteristics. With regard to current items, there was a further increase in the deficit on goods account, which reached 593 million dollars against 330 in the first half of 1960, as a result of the greater increase in imports against exports. The progress made in invisible items seems, on the other hand, sufficient to largely compensate the above increase, and, at the end of june, a balance had more or less been reached with a debit of 22 million dollars (against a surplus of 132 million in the first half of 1960).

ITALY'S FOREIGN TRADE (*millions of lire*)

MONTH	Imports		Exports		Balance	
	1960	1961	1960	1961	1960	1961
January	218,663	263,341	145,367	177,642	— 73,294	— 85,699
February	247,539	256,463	191,840	198,527	— 45,699	— 57,936
March	252,897	294,322	209,362	228,982	— 43,535	— 66,340
April	241,928	266,458	189,659	202,048	— 52,269	— 64,410
May	259,845	291,884	205,970	209,316	— 53,875	— 82,568
June	231,609	266,094	178,002	204,024	— 53,617	— 62,070
July	270,253	271,222	194,711	235,129	— 75,542	— 36,093
August	215,452	250,944	180,408	217,233	— 35,044	— 33,711
September	241,243	—	191,807	—	— 49,436	—
October	260,042	—	207,785	—	— 52,257	—
November	254,629	—	183,524	—	71,105	—
December	256,836	—	202.548	—	54,288	—
First 8 months	1,938,186	2,160,728	1,494,949	1,671,901	— 443,237	— 488,827
Year	2,950,934	—	2,280,983	—	— 669,951	—

Source: Central Institute of Statistics.

A comparison with data for the end of March (which show a debit of 89 million dollars), gives a clear indication of the positive evolution of the current part of the balance in the second quarter of the year. Particularly outstanding is the increase, between the two quarters considered, of the contribution from tourism (from 181 to 328 million dollars), but much help came from of freight (from 127 to 142 million) and emigrants' remittances (from 123 to 158 million).

As regards capital movement — in the first half of 1961 — this gave a net contribution of 120 million dollars (against 20 million in the first six months of 1960). Particularly noteworthy is the increase in foreign capital investment (the net figure rising from 116 to 169 million dollars), in foreign loans (from 11 to 83 million), Italian capital investment abroad (from 40 to 54 million, net).

In the period in question, therefore, the Italian balance of payments closed with a surplus of 98 million dollars, that is to say a lower figure than that for the first half of 1960 (152 million). It is interesting to note how, in the course of the second quarter of the year, there was an improvement of no less than 158 million dollars compared with the situation at the end of March, which showed a deficit of 60 million. As a result of the various movements, official gold and convertible exchange reserves have further increased, reaching 3,108 million dollars at the of June

ITALY'S BALANCE OF PAYMENTS
(*millions of dollars*)

ITEMS	First half	
	1960	1961
Trade balance	— 329,6	— 593,1
Invisible items	+ 456,0	+ 568,2
Government transactions	+ 38,9	+ 25,7
Travelling items, adjustments	— 33,3	— 22,9
Balance, current items	+ 132,0	— 22,0
Capital movements	+ 20,4	+ 119,6
Balance of payments	+ 152,4	+ 97,6
Gold and convertible currencies (end of period)	2,897,9	3,107,9

Public finance. During the first three months of financial year 1961-62, the State balance sheet showed the following trend (in brackets, data for the same period 1960-61):

The Budget. The deficit for the first three months of the financial year was, on current items, 69 milliard (— 86); the deficit on capital account was 133 milliard (— 57). Therefore, the total deficit, current items and capital account, was, on the 30th September 1961, 202 milliard (— 143).

Current collections assessed during the period amounted to 1,048 milliard (906), against an estimate for the 3/12ths of the financial year of 1,013 milliard (912), and were, therefore, 35 milliard higher than estimates (— 6).

Collections on capital account were 18 milliard (31), with assessments exceeding estimates by 2 milliard (+ 13). The grand total of collections amounted, therefore, to 1,066 milliard (937), with assessments exceeding estimates by 37 milliard (+ 7).

Current pledged expenditure during the period amounted to 1,117 milliard (991), against an estimate for the first three months of the current financial year of 1,085 milliard (988); there was, therefore, an increase of pledged expenditure over estimates of 32 milliard, against an increase of 3 milliard in the same period of the previous financial year. On capital account, pledged expenditure amounted to 151 milliard (88), against an estimate, for the 3/12ths of the financial year, of 129 milliard (85).

The grand total of pledged expenditure was 1,268 milliard (1,080), against an estimate of 1,214 milliard (1,073).

Cash account. The cash account showed a surplus of 163 milliard lire, against a cash surplus of 105 milliard on the 30th September 1960. Current cash collections, from 1st July to 30th September 1961, amounted to 835 milliard, and collections on capital account, 29 milliard, giving a total of 864 milliard. The above mentioned cash collections, compared with budget collections, always on current items, amounting to 1,048, are, therefore, 213 milliard less than budget collections.

Current cash disbursements amounted to 652 milliard, and on capital account, 49 milliard; in all 701 milliard lire. As pledged expenditure was 1,117 milliard, current cash payments were 465 milliard lire less than budget disbursements.

The Treasury situation, as a result of the above financial surplus, passed, between 1st July and 30th September 1961, from a deficit of 3,319 milliard, to one of 3,156 milliard, with an improvement (equal to the improvement in the cash situation) of 163 milliard lire (by Treasury situation is intended the total deficit less the surplus of previous financial years and the current year).

Current collections in the first three months of the financial year were: income from national assets, 2 milliard (2); direct taxation, 150 milliard (131); indirect taxes and duties on business transactions, 287 milliard (250); customs and excise, 239 milliard (219); sundry collections, 17 milliard (18); collections on account of extraordinary receipts, 37 milliard (22); total current collections, as stated, 835 milliard lire (742 milliard).

Current disbursements in this period were: national and floating debts, 22 milliard (29); staff expenditure, 256 milliard (237); life annuities, 85 milliard (93), including 42 milliard for war pensions (47); military expenditure, 32 milliard (44); land reclamation works, 20 milliard (18); civil service expenditure, 221 milliard (20); extraordinary expenditure, 16 milliard (16); total current disbursements, as stated above, 652 milliard (638).

The cash situation, on the 30th September 1961, showed a balance of 4 milliard, with a deterioration of 0,4 milliard compared with 30th June 1961.

As has been said, current collections in the first quarter of financial year 1961-62 amounted to 835 milliard lire, against 742 milliard in the same period of 1960, with an increase of 93 milliard or 12.5%. More precisely, direct taxation, from 1st July to 30th September 1961, gave a total yield of 150 milliard, against 131 milliard in the corresponding period of 1960 (+ 19). In this taxation group, land tax yielded 1 milliard against 1 milliard; buildings, 2 milliard against 2 milliard; income tax, 98 milliard against 85 milliard (+ 13); the progressive supplementary tax on total income, 15 milliard against 14 milliard (+ 1); tax on companies and debentures, 17 milliard against 14 milliard (+ 3); the 35% tax on betting, 0.5 milliard against 0.1 milliard (+ 0.4); additional 5% on Treasury dues, 8 milliard against 8 milliard; estate duty, 9 milliard against 7 milliard (+ 2).

Indirect taxes and duties on business transactions, in the three months under consideration, yielded a total of 287 milliard, against 250 milliard on the 30th September 1960, with an increase of 37 milliard.

Customs and excise yielded a total, at 30th September 1961, of 239 milliard against 219 milliard at the end of September 1960, with an increase of 20 milliard. State monopolies altogether yielded a total of 97 milliard against 91 milliard in the same period of financial year 1960-61, showing an increase of 6 milliard.

Collections on account of extraordinary receipts, in the first three months of the current financial year amounted to 37 milliard against

22 milliard at the 30th September 1960, thus showing an increase of 15 milliard; lastly, income from State assets yielded 2 milliard against 2 milliard lire in the same period of the previous financial year.

In the first nine months of 1961, principal fiscal receipts reached a total of 2,891.0 milliard. In view of the fact that, on the same date in 1960, fiscal collections for the year had reached 2,600.05 milliard lire, the result is that, in 1961, there was an increase of 290.5 milliard compared with 1960, a percentage increase of 11.2%.

Monetary circulation. Total monetary circulation, on the 30th September 1961, reached 2,507,607 million lire, of which 92,082 million in State coinage and 2,415,525 million in banknotes.

As can be seen the table, compared with the 2,247,326 million lire in circulation on 30th Setpember 1960, there has been an increase of 260,281 million, equal to 11.6%. Furthermore, in the first nine months of 1961, there was reduction in monetary circulation, in that

ITALIAN MONETARY CIRCULATION (*millions of lire*)

MONTHS	Coins		Banknotes		Total currency in circulation	
	1960	1961	1960	1961	1960	1961
January	70,336	85,291	2,077,800	2,237,369	2,148,136	2,322,660
February	71,896	85,795	2,031,756	2,202,499	2,103,652	2,288,294
March	73,256	87,197	2,034,815	2,261,822	2,108,071	2,349,109
April	74,056	88,098	2,053,041	2,244,552	2,127,097	2,332,650
May	74,937	89,095	2,063,003	2,257,962	2,137,940	2,347,057
June	75,871	89,548	2,094,803	2,312,766	25170,674	2,402,314
July	76,707	90,396	2,179,429	2,407,318	2,256,136	2,497,714
August	77,699	90,852	2,14,6584	2,362,367	2,224,283	2,453,219
September	78,899	92,082	2,168,427	2,415,525	2,247,326	2,507,607
October	80,073	—	2,151,485	—	2,231,558	—
November	81,485	—	2,160,623	—	2,242,108	—
December	84,163	—	2,424,122	—	2,508,285	—

it fell from 2,508,285 million in December 1960 to 2,507,607 million on 30th September 1961. On the other hand, in the same period of 1960, Italian monetary circulation decreased by 2.6%, falling from 2,307,123 million at 31st December 1959 to 2,347,326 million lire at 30th September 1960.

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SUICIDES IN ITALY AND ABROAD

Trend over the Past Ten Years

Suicide in Italy has gradually dropped over the past few years and the average percentage of 6.5 cases per 100,000 inhabitants registered in 1949/52 contracted to 6.4 in 1953/56 and to 6.3 in the successive three years (Table I), very low when compared to other countries.

Table I - Suicides from 1948 to 1954

YEAR	Men	Women	Total	Per 100,000 inhabs.
1948	2,070	792	2,862	*6.2*
1949	2,186	854	3,040	*6.5*
1950	2,147	844	2,991	*6.4*
1951	2,329	838	3,167	*6.7*
1952	2,127	857	2,984	*6.3*
1953	2,114	953	3,067	*6.4*
1954	2,032	879	2,911	*6.0*

Over the past five years, calculations have also been made of unsuccessful attempts at suicide. These have proved to vary somewhat so that the totals generally show a farly constant average. Twice as many men commit suicide but the proportion between the two sexes is exactly the opposite for attempted suicide and this brings overall totals to more or less the same level. Considering age groups, suicide does not appear very widespread among adolescents or young adults; furthermore, for every case committed by

Table II - Suicides and Attempted Suicides from 1955 to 1959 (*a*)

YEAR	Suicides				Attempted Suicides				Total			
	Men	Women	Total	Per 100,000 inhabs.	Men	Women	Total	Per 100,000 inhabs.	Men	Women	Total	Per 100,000 inhabs.
1955	2,255	894	3,149	*6.6*	1,399	2,370	3,769	*7.8*	3,654	3,264	6,918	*14,4*
1956	2,201	898	3,099	*6.4*	1,361	2,139	3,500	*7.2*	3,562	3,037	6,599	*13,6*
1957	2,092	926	3,018	*6.5*	1,249	2,090	3,339	*6.8*	3,341	3,016	6,357	*13,3*
1958	2,018	901	2,919	*6.1*	1,211	2,089	3,300	*6.7*	3,229	2,990	6,219	*12,8*
1959	2,119	923	3,042	*6.2*	1,423	2,653	4,076	*8.3*	3,542	3,576	7,118	*14,5*

(*a*) Data compiled from files held by Police authorities.

persons under 25 years of age, there are four or more unsuccessful. This points to the fact that a certain amount of exhibitionism is involved, an aspect that is very common to certain types of society.

Above the age of 45, suicide is much more common and occurs more frequently among widows and widowers than married couples who, in turn, show a higher percentage than unmarried persons. The latter however, reveal the highest figures for attempted suicide.

There appears to be a seasonal rise and fall each year (Table III) with an increase during the spring and summer months (April to July) and a drop in the autumn and winter months (September to Febraury).

Table III - Suicides and Attempted Suicides per Month (*a*)
(*Average percentages for 1955/59*)

MONTH	Suicides			Attempted Suicides			General Total		
	Men	Women	Tota	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
January	6.9	6.7	6.8	9.4	7.2	8.3	8.1	6.9	7.5
February	7.1	7.5	7.3	7.8	7.0	7.4	7.5	7.3	7.4
March	8.8	8.0	8.4	8.6	8.4	8.5	8.7	8.2	8.5
April	9.6	9.6	9.6	8.4	9.0	8.7	9.0	9.3	9.2
May	10.8	9.8	10.3	8.6	9.7	9.2	9.7	9.7	9.7
June	10.6	10.2	10.4	9.4	9.8	9.6	10.0	10.0	10.0
July	10.6	9.6	10.1	9.0	10.0	9.5	9.8	9.8	9.8
August	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.4	9.3	8.8	8.2	8.6	8.4
September	7.3	7.5	7.4	7.4	8.4	7.9	7.4	8.0	7.7
October	6.8	8.0	7.4	9.2	7.6	8.4	8.0	7.8	7.9
November	6.6	7.6	7.1	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.8	7.3	7.0
December	6.8	7.5	7.1	6.8	6.6	6.7	6.8	7.1	6.9
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(*a*) Refer note in Table II.

The chief causes of suicide are shown in Table IV. These are, health (generally some form of mental sickness), causing about 70% of total suicides, emotional disturbances (family contrasts and unhappy love affairs — the latter wrongly held to be responsible for the majority of cases) accounting for about 15% and financial and money troubles, responsible for only 7%. « Reasons of honour » are less than one per cent.

Examination of data relative to attempted suicide produces percentages that vary greatly. Reasons of affection are first on the list, particularly among women and this points to the fact that, in the majority of cases, a deliberate wish to commit suicide is lacking and often the attempt is made as a means of creating an impression.

Table IV - Suicides and Attempted Suicides - Reasons (*a*) (*Average percentages 1955/59*)

REASON	Suicides			Attempted Suicides			General Total		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Sickness:									
Physical	23.4	19.0	21.2	15.8	8.6	12.2	19.6	13.8	16.9
Mental	48.2	51.4	49.8	32.2	26.6	29.4	40.2	39.0	39.6
Reason of Affection (*b*)	12.1	18.3	15.2	29.4	52.4	40.9	20.7	35.3	28.0
Reasons of Honour (*c*)	0.6	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.6	1.4	0.9	1.4	1.1
Financial or Money..	9.5	4.7	7.1	18.2	8.4	13.3	13.9	6.6	10.2
Not Ascertained	6.2	5.4	5.8	3.2	2.4	2.8	4.7	3.9	4.2
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(*a*) Refer to note in Table II.

(*b*) Family quarrels, love affairs, etc.

(*c*) Seduction, slander, etc.

(*d*) Bankruptcy, etc.

The methods used in committing suicide vary considerably. Men prefer poison, hanging, shooting or cutting their throat in that order. Women, on the other hand, show a dislike for firearms or other weapons and prefer poison, throwing themselves from building drowning and hanging.

Table V - Suicides and Attempted Suicides - Methods Used (*a*) (*Average percentages 1955/59*)

METHOD	Suicides			Attempted Suicides			General Total		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Poison	5.9	15.5	10.7	44.7	70.7	57.7	25.3	43.1	34.2
Asphyxiation by Gas..	5.2	10.2	7.7	6.4	5.5	6.0	5.8	7.8	6.8
Hanging	34.4	23.6	29.0	6.4	1.2	3.8	20.4	12.4	16.4
Knife or Razor	2.7	2.1	2.4	19.7	6.7	13.2	11.2	4.4	7.8
Firearms	19.1	2.7	10.9	5.2	0.8	3.0	12.1	1.8	6.9
Jumping from Building	11.6	19.2	15.4	7.4	7.6	7.5	9.5	13.4	11.5
Drowning	12.7	19.9	16.3	5.4	5.6	5.5	9.1	12.8	10.9
Jumping in front of trains or vehicles...	7.4	5.8	6.6	3.3	1.1	2.2	5.3	3.4	4.4
Other methods	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.5	0.8	1.1	1.3	0.9	1.1
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(*a*) Refer to note in Table II.

Hanging, although showing a high percentage among cases of successful suicides has a very low level among unsuccessful cases. Poison causes relatively few victims in spite of its widespread use.

Northern Italy holds the unfortunate primate in geographical distribution of suicides while the southern and insular regions, in spite of greater poverty and difficult living conditions (or maybe because these produce greater courage) have averages that are well below the national figure.

Suicides per 100,000 persons (averages for 1957/59) per region are as follows:

Vall d'Aosta 14.3; *Piedmont* 11.9; *Liguria* 11.7; *Emilia Romagna* 10.0; *Umbria* 8.4; *Trentino-Alto Adige* 8.0; *Friuli-Venetia Julia* 7.5; *Venetia* 7.0; *Marches* 6.4; *Lombardy* 6.1; *Tuscany* 6.1; *Sardinia* 5.8; *Latium* 5.6; *Abruzzi and Molise* 4.9; *Basilicata* 4.6; *Sicily* 4.5; *Campania* 3.7; *Apulia* 3.6; *Calabria* 2.8. National average 6.3.

Table VI - Suicides per 100,000 *inhabitants in other States (Bi-yearly averages from 1948/49 to 1958/59)*

STATE	1948–49	1950–51	1952–53	1954–55	1956–57	1958–59
Denmark	25.0	23.4	23.5	23.3	22.4	21.1
France	14.5	15.4	15.2	15.9	16.3	16.8
Federal Republic of Germany	17.4	19.2	18.2	19.1	18.5	18.6
Great Britain	10.9	10.4	10.3	11.3	12.0	11.6
Italy	*6.3*	*6.5*	*6.4*	*6.3*	*6.4*	*6.1*
Holland	6.4	5.8	6.4	6.3	6.5	6.8
Portugal	10.0	10.0	,,,,	9.2	8.0	8.8
Switzerland	23.2	21.5	21.4	22.2	21.3	20.0
Japan	,,,,	,,,,	18.6	22.0	24.6	25.5
United States (a)	11.3	11.1	10.1	10.2	9.9	11.1
Canada	7.9	7.6	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.5
Australia	9.6	9.5	10.8	10.8	11.6	12.3

(a) White population only. Coloured people have very low figures for suicide.

Comparison on a world scale, even if limited to but few nations, reveals that there are many more suicides in Japan, Denmark, Switzerland, France, the German Federal Republic, Australia, Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Portugal and Holland. Among those nations not mentioned in Table VI are many that have figures far higher than those registered in Italy. They include: Belgium (13 cases per 100,000 inhabitants), Sweden (18), Austria (25), Hungary (26), the German Democratic Republic (more than 28) and West Berlin (24 per 100,000).

URBANIZATION IN ITALY AND ABROAD

Growth of Town Populations from 1901 to 1961. Increases in world towns and cities over the past ten years

Sixty years ago, there were only eleven Italian cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants. Naples headed the list with 600,000 followed by Milan, with over 500,000 and Rome with 423,000. Genoa, Turin and Palermo had populations of over 300,000, Florence 200,000 and Venice, Bologna, Catania and Messina between 189/148,000. Persons living in these eleven cities represented 10.6% of the total population at that time.

Time does not permit an analysis of that vast phenomen known as « urbanization » which, in the course of but a few decades, has brought about such great changes, nor is it possible to examine all the effects and repercussions that it has caused among the various demographic, political and social questions connected with it. This article is limited to a brief illustration of the manner in which it has developed and the problems involved.

Table 1 shows the tremendous growth that has taken place in 31 cities that now have a resident population of over 100,000. The 3.5 million persons registered during the census of 1901 as living in the eleven cities mentioned earlier have now become more than 12 million, distributed throughout 31 urban centres and accounting for about 25% of the entire Italian population. Demographic movement throughout the past sixty years, so profoundly altered by urban development, may be expressed as follows: persons living in towns and cities in 1901 represented a tenth of the total population, an eighth in 1911, more than one sixth in 1931, a fifth ten years ago and will shortly reach about 25%. At the 1936 census, Rome and Milan had more than one million inhabitants and Naples reached this figure in 1951. Rome now has about two million inhabitants and is the sixth European city to reach this goal.

Widening the survey to include towns with less than 100,000 inhabitants, it will be seen in general (Table II) that, from 1901, there has been a constant rise in the number of Communes with a population of over 10,000. Those with 10,000/20,000 have increased from 339 to 519; those with 20/50,000 have risen from 133 to 237 while those with 50/100,000 inhabitants, numering 24 sixty years ago, have more than doubled, to reach 58 in 1961. These figures, which

Table I - Populations of Italian cities with over 100,000 inhabitants (*in thousands*)

CITY	1901	1911	1921	1931	1936	1951	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960
Rome	423	520	660	931	1,151	1,652	1,788	1,829	1,872	1,920	1,983	2,049
Milan	539	702	818	960	1,116	1,274	1,328	1,355	1,390	1,426	1,471	1,505
Naples	621	751	860	832	866	1,011	1,078	1,097	1,114	1,131	1,150	1,170
Turin	330	416	500	591	629	719	821	853	887	917	946	994
Genoa	378	466	542	591	635	688	719	727	737	748	758	769
Palermo	310	339	397	380	412	491	542	557	569	581	591	601
Bologna	153	179	213	249	281	340	374	388	401	415	427	440
Florence	237	258	280	304	321	375	398	404	412	421	429	437
Catania	148	208	253	225	245	300	329	337	345	254	363	372
Venice	189	208	223	250	264	317	331	333	336	341	346	352
Bari	—	122	136	173	198	268	294	300	304	309	313	319
Trieste	—	—	240	250	248	273	281	286	285	283	283	283
Messina	145	128	177	180	192	221	235	238	241	245	249	253
Verona	—	117	132	146	154	179	191	194	198	203	210	218
Padua	—	—	109	127	139	168	180	184	187	190	195	199
Taranto	—	—	104	112	118	169	183	185	188	191	193	195
Cagliari	—	—	—	—	104	139	152	155	160	166	172	177
Brescia	—	—	104	115	123	142	149	151	154	160	165	169
Leghorn	—	104	114	121	124	142	150	153	156	158	160	161
Reggio Calabria	—	—	—	109	120	141	146	147	149	151	152	154
Ferrara	—	—	107	116	119	134	141	143	145	147	149	151
Parma	—	—	—	—	103	116	124	127	129	132	135	139
Modena	—	—	—	—	—	111	119	122	125	128	131	135
La Spezia	—	—	100	115	106	112	115	116	118	119	121	122
Foggia	—	—	—	—	—	—	113	117	116	114	116	119
Bergamo	—	—	—	—	—	103	109	110	110	112	113	115
Reggio Emilia	—	—	—	—	—	107	109	110	111	112	114	115
Salerno	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	102	106	111	115
Perugia	—	—	—	—	—	—	101	103	105	108	110	112
Ravenna	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	103	107	110	112
Ancona	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	100
Total cities with more than 100,000 inhabs.	11	14	20	21	23	26	28	28	30	30	30	31
Total inhabs. in said cities	3,476	4,518	6,069	6,877	7,768	9,692	10,600	10,821	11,249	11,495	11,764	12,152
Percentage of total population in said cities	*10.6*	*12.9*	*15.9*	*16.6*	*18.0*	*20.7*	*21.5*	*21.6*	*22.5*	*22.8*	*23.2*	*23.7*

testify to a constant movement towards urban districts, are countered by a somewhat irregular curve for the smaller towns and villages. Towns with 3/10,000 inhabitants first tended to grow but they have gradually contracted throughout the past fifty years. Small urban centres with 1,000/3,000 inhabitants contracted sharply after 1921 and since that time have remained more or less at the same level. Finally, the very small villages, with less than 1,000 inhabitants (mostly in the mountainous areas) have fluctuated and regular growth has only been witnessed in latter years.

The rate of growth of the population of the large cities has been somewhat different because of various political and economic reasons.

Table II - Communes per Population Density (*a*)

YEAR	up to 1,000	1/3,000	3,001 to 10,000	10,001 to 20,000	20,001 to 50,000	50,001 to 100,000	100,001 to 500,000	over 500,000
1901.....	1,765	3,501	2,489	339	133	24	9	2
1911.....	1,666	3,460	2,621	383	151	29	11	3
1921.....	2,194	3,570	2,778	433	161	40	15	5
1931.....	771	3,092	2,739	464	180	43	16	5
1936.....	788	3,067	2,757	477	185	43	18	5
1951.....	1,166	3,072	2,779	503	217	48	21	5
1955.....	1,075	3,041	2,783	512	225	54	22	6
1956.....	1,330	3,046	2,765	512	224	55	22	6
1957.....	1,381	3,045	2,739	512	229	55	24	6
1958.....	1,402	3,043	2,709	512	235	56	24	6
1959.....	1,418	3,073	2,692	516	234	57	24	6
1960.....	1,435	3,072	2,675	515	236	58	25	6
1961 (*b*)	1,449	3,074	2,661	517	237	58	26	6

(*a*) Resident population at date of census or end of each year.
(*b*) Provisional data.

Certain Communes have remained almost static since 1901 while others have witnessed a gradual dwindling of their inhabitants. Considering 1901 populations as equal to 100, the following communes revealed the lowest indexes in 1951 and 1961:

	1951	1961
Alcamo (Trapani)	81	84
Cappannori (Lucca)	90	89
Modica (Ragusa)	81	98
Cortona (Arezzo)	109	101
Caltagirone (Catania)	98	102
Corato (Bari)	109	104
Enna	106	114
Trani (Bari)	107	116
Lugo di Romana (Ravenna)	115	120
Lucca	120	120
Casale Monferrato (Alessandria)	119	123
Pistoia	119	126
Alessandria	116	128
Trapani	119	128
Asti	117	131

On the other hand, maximum development resulting from local economic expansion, is to be found at Latina and Carbonia; the former (1901 = 100) had reached 3,850 in 1951 and 5,330 in 1961, the latter 1,456 and 1,445 respectively. But, apart from these extreme examples (since they hardly existed as towns at the beginning of the century) the record for population growth is held by Sesto San Gio-

vanni (northern Italy) which, over the past sixty years, has increased eightfold. This is followed by Pescara (index = 519) and Grosseto (index = 510). Those cities that have populations which have increased by more than four times the 1901 level are: Rome (index = 485), Piombino (453), Crotone (411), Aosta (402) and Bari (401), while those that have increased threefold are Bolzano (353), Taranto (348), Nuoro (315), Manfredonia (311), Turin and Brindisi (302). Among the six cities with more than half a million inhabitants, apart from Rome and Turin which were mentioned earlier, are Milan (index = 279), Genoa (203), Palermo (195) and Naples (188).

* * *

Urbanization in other nations has also become more marked in the past ten years, the rhythm being more or less the same as that registered in Italy (Table III).

There are seven cities in the world which have more than five million inhabitants. They are: New York, London, Shanghai, Paris, Peking and Moscow. Of these, Paris, Moscow and Peking passed this level between 1951 and 1961. A further twenty cities have populations of over 2 million inhabitants but less than 5 million. Among these, eight have reached such figures in the past ten years: one European city (Rome), five Asian cities (Jakarta, Ciungking, Mukden, Tientsin and Wuhan), one American city (Los Angeles) and one Australian city (Sydney). Cities with inhabitants counted in millions numbered 39 ten years ago but have now swelled to 58. Excluding eight that have passed the two million mark, there are 27 cities that have reached the level of one million inhabitants in the past decade (six in Europe and the U.S.S.R., one in Africa, thirteen in Asia and 7 in America).

During the same period, towns with a population ranging between 500,000 and one million, numbering 84 in 1951, have grown to 104, with a numerical increase of 50%, duly considering those that have been classified in a higher demographic category. In all, cities with more than 500,000 inhabitants have risen from 142 to 189, a proportional increase of 33%.

Those towns and cities which have shown the greatest development in the period 1951-1961 — according to statistical data released by the respective governments and leaving aside omissions — are to be mostly found in the Middle and Far East and the Soviet Union and its satellites as well as certain countries of South America. The following list gives the percentage figures.

TOWN	Population Increase	TOWN	Population Increase
Burma - Rangoon	60%	*Iran* - Teheran	59%
China		*Irak* - Baghdad	95%
Peking	167%	*Thailand* - Bangkok	55%
Chungking	98%	*Vietnam* - Hanoi	79%
Tientsin	95%	*Poland* - Warsaw	82%
Wuhan	83%	*U.S.S.R.*	
Kunming	60%	Kuibyshev	61%
Taiyuan	59%	Sverdlovsk	58%
Korea - Seoul	42%	Taskent	56%
Japan		*Argentina* - Buenos Aires	55%
Tokyo	48%	*Brazil* - S. Paolo	52%
Nagoya	45%	*Chile* - Santiago	60%
Hong Kong		*Colombia* - Bogota	63%
Kowloon	120%	*Cuba* - Havana	73%
Victoria	62%	*Peru* - Lima	45%
India - New Delhi	46%	*Venezuela* - Caracas	138%
Indonesia			
Jakarta	200%		
Surabaja	101%		
Bandung	80%		

In Europe, the city of Dusseldorf has registered the highest expansion (39%). Most of the more important British cities have shown a drop in the number of their inhabitants, as also Vienna and, for obvious reasons, the two major towns of Eastern Germany, East Berlin and Leipzig.

PERCENTAGES OF POPULATION IN TOWNS WITH MORE THAN 500,000 INHABITANTS

	1951	1961		1951	1961
Europe	12.8%	14.1%	U.S.A. & Canada	19.3%	19.1%
U.S.S.R.	7.1%	11.6%	Latin America	9.9%	16.2%
Asia	3.1%	4.2%	Australasia	20.4%	28.9%
Africa	2.4%	3.4%	*World*	6.5%	8.1%

But the most representative figures are those that refer to demographic concentration in the chief cities of the world between 1951 and 1961. With the exception of the United States and Canada, these have increased, the rise being more marked in Asia and Latin America and somewhat less in other areas.

Table III - World Cities with more than 500,000 inhabitants

YEARS AND CONTINENT	from 500,000 to 750,000 inh.	from 750,000 to 1 million inh.	from 1 to 2 million inh.	from 2 to 5 million inh.	Over 5 million inh.
1951-52					
Europe and U.S.S.R. (*a*)	28	10	14	4	1
Asia (*b*)	10	11	18	4	2
Africa	2	1	1	1	—
America	12	10	4	6	1
Australasia	—	—	2	—	—
Total	52	32	39	15	4
Cities with more than 500,000 inhabs	142				
1953-54					
Europe and U.S.S.R. (*a*)	31	14	14	3	2
Asia (*b*)	15	10	19	6	2
Africa	3	1	1	1	—
America	13	9	5	6	1
Australasia	—	—	2	—	—
Total	62	34	41	16	5
Cities with more than 500,000 inhabs	158				
1955-56					
Europe and U.S.S.R. (*a*)	36	14	15	2	3
Asia (*b*)	11	14	20	7	2
Africa	5	1	1	1	—
America	14	9	4	7	1
Australasia	1	—	2	—	—
Total	67	38	42	17	6
Cities with more than 500,000 inhabs	170				
1957-58					
Europe and U.S.S.R. (*a*)	36	12	19	2	3
Asia (*b*)	8	16	23	9	2
Africa	5	—	2	1	—
America	18	6	9	7	1
Australasia	2	—	2	—	—
Total	69	34	55	19	6
Cities with more than 500,000 inhabs	183				
1959-60					
Europe and U.S.S.R. (*a*)	39	13	19	3	3
Asia (*b*)	7	15	26	8	3
Africa	4	1	2	1	—
America	16	7	10	7	1
Australasia	2	—	1	1	—
Total	68	36	58	20	7
Cities with more than 500,000 inhabs	189				

(*a*) Excluding Turkey in Europe and including Russia in Asia.
(*b*) Including Turkey in Europe and excluding Russia in Asia.

BIRTHS AND DEATHS IN ITALY

Drop in the death rate and contraction in infant mortality

Generations change through births and deaths to which must be added many factors of a biological, health, hygienic, moral and economic nature. This report does not attempt an analysis of such complex elements but is limited to an examination of the statistical aspects of births and deaths resulting from the official figures published by the Central Institute of Statistics.

This survey covers a century, from 1861 to the present day, and refers to ten year periods since this is the best way of demonstrating the various trends that have taken place.

Since the population has grown considerably during the period in question — from 26 million in 1861 to 50,463,762 at October 15, 1961 — both births and deaths are quoted per thousand inhabitants.

Births

Average births over the period 1861-70 were almost 38 per 1,000 but this figure has contracted considerably since that time. At the end of the century — 1891 to 1900 — the level had already dropped to 35 births and a more marked decrease took place in 1911-20 as a result of the first world war (27 per annum). A slight rise was apparent in 1921-30 when the spectre of war was no longer present and births numbered 29 per thousand. Successively, the downward trend started again and, over the past ten years (1952-1961), the average has been 17-18 births per thousand, the lowest level for the whole century and only comparable to the figures registered in 1917-18 and 1944-45.

It is interesting to note that the present average birth rate is almost exactly half that recorded at the time of Italian unity. In 1961, total live births were 930,295, an increase of 19,462 over the preceding year. The quotient, that is, the number of live births per thousand inhabitants, was 18.4 against 17.9 in 1960.

Although the overall average for live births in 18.4, it has dropped to a minimum level of 12-13 per thousand in Piedmont, Valle d'Aosta, Liguria, Friuli-Venetia Julia, Emilia-Romagna and Tuscany. The low birth rate is beginning to creep beyond the northern regions towards central Italy and is even apparent in Abruzzi and Molise,

southern regions with the lowest average. The highest quotients are to be found in Basilicata, Apulia, Calabria, and Campania, with an average of 23-24 births per thousand.

In Sicily and Sardinia, the birth rate is still above the national average, being 22-23 and this means that the South continues to provide the greater part of the future generations; this, in itself, justifies the policy that the Government is executing for the purpose of developing these regions. It may also be observed that when Italy had a population of less than 25 million, during the period 1861-70, an average of about 968,000 children were born each year. Now that the population has reached a figure of almost 50.5 million, the birth rate is but 930,000 (1961), about the same level as that registered in Austria, Belgium, Germany and Switzerland.

Deaths

About a century ago, the death rate was 30 per 1,000 inhabitants each year, a figure that was very high and largely due to widespread infant mortality. During the ten year period 1861-70, 227 children of every 1,000 live births died during the first year.

Successively, the death rate began to drop but infant mortality remained high. There was a rapid increase in deaths during and after the first world war, due to war casualties and an epidemic of Spanish « 'flu » so that, in 911-29, a low birth rate and a very high death rate led to the lowest average ever recorded in Italy — 5 persons per thousand each year.

During the following ten years (1921-30) the rate increased to 12, showing the recovery of a population that had been sorely tried by war. The second world war produced far less field casualties but, nevertheless, fewer births and war casualties reduced the births over deaths ratio by about eight.

Total registered deaths during 1961 were 467,933, a drop of 12,916 when compared to figures for 1960. The quotient was 9.3, against 9.4 for 1960. As a consequence, the natural increase in population was 462,362, a rise of 32,378 over the preceding year. The quotient was 9.1 against 8.3 in 1960.

Examination of mortality according to the regions shows that the highest quotient is to be found in the North and in Tuscany, regions with a low birth rate. During 1960, for example, the *quotients for births and deaths were equal* (12.3 per 1,000). To some extent, the lack of expansion in the natural population of these regions encourages migration from the southern areas, a movement that is now

looked upon as a means of providing the manpower needed by northern industry.

In conclusion, there is one great consoling factor — *infant mortality has contracted considerably*. During the period 1861-70, about 23 of every 100 children died during their first year but statistics for the past ten years place the figure at 1 out of every 25 and no longer one in five.

However, in spite of such comforting figures, the struggle against children's diseases must continue as also all other undertakings that provide protection, particularly in the southern regions where the birth rate is high and incomes low. Nevertheless, the present situation does reflect what has been done towards assisting the less fortunate classes and providing them with better living conditions.

Births and Deaths - Quotients (1861 to 1961)

Period	Live Births	Deaths	Excess	Deaths in 1st. Year
	Per 1,000 inhabitants			Per 1,000 live births
1861–70	37.6	30.3	7.3	227
1871–80	36.9	29.9	7.0	215
1881–90	37.8	27.3	10.5	195
1891–900	35.0	24.2	10.8	176
1901–10	32.7	21.6	11.1	160
1911–20	27.3	22.2	5.1	145
1921–30	28.6	16.9	11.7	123
1931–40	23.6	14.0	9.6	104
1941–50	20.5	12.7	7.8	92
1951–60	17.8	9.6	8.2	53
1951	18.4	10.3	8.1	67
1952	17.8	1050	7.8	63
1953	17.5	9.9	7.6	58
1954	18.0	9.1	8.9	53
1955	17.7	9.1	8.6	51
1956	17.7	10.1	7.6	49
1957	17.7	9.7	8.0	50
1958	17.4	9.1	8.3	48
1959	17.8	9.0	8.8	45
1960	17.9	9.4	8.5	44
1961	18.4	9.3	9.1	40.1

ITALIAN LINES

ITALIA

North and South America · Central America North and South Pacific

LLOYD TRIESTINO

Asia · Africa Australia

ADRIATICA

Egypt Israel · Lebanon · Syria · Cyprus · Turkey Black Sea · Greece

TIRRENIA

Libya Tunis · Sicily · Sardinia · Corsica · Malta · Marseilles
Spain · Northern Europe

DECLINE IN ILLEGITIMATE BIRTHS

Seventy percent drop since 1900. A Contraction of 20 % in the General Birth Rate

Recent statistics show that illegitimate births are progressively declining. During the ten-year period 1891-1900, 66 of every 1,000 children born were illegitimate but this figure had dropped to 54 over the period 1901-1910 and to 48 in 1911-1920. The first decade after the world war (1921-1930) witnessed a slight rise (50 of every thousand births per year) but the drop was fairly constant in the years that followed — 46 per 1,000 in 1931-1940, 39 in 1941-1950, 33 in 1951-1955 and 27 in 1956-1960. In absolute figures, the number has contracted from almost 76,000 illegitimate births in 1891-1900 to less than 25,000 in 1956-1960. Although it is true that the number of births in general has dropped at the same time, the contraction has only been 20% againt 70% for illegitimate births.

Table I - Illegitimate Births Compared to Total Births
(*annual averages of periods considered*)

YEAR	Total Births	Illegitimate	
		No.	Per 1,000 births
1891–900	1,144,511	75,908	*66*
1901–10	1,138,373	61,785	*54*
1911–20	1,014,014	48,441	*48*
1921–30	1,143,667	56,704	*50*
1931–40	1,042,095	48,186	*46*
1941–50	956,378	37,357	*39*
1951–55	883,298	29,143	*33*
1956–60	910,788	24,586	*27*

Examination of the distribution of illegitimate children throughout Italy, based on recent figures for the five year period 1955-1959, reveals situation showed in Table II. In absolute figures the regions with the highest illegitimate birth rate are: Campania (3,276), Sicily (2,689) and Latium (2,666) followed by Lombardy (2,515), Emilia-Romagna (2,110), Venetia (1,953), Calabria (1,820), Apulia (1,791)

and Piedmonte (1,179). The other regions have less than one thousand illegitimate births per annum.

An even closer examination may be made by comparison of the number of illegitimate births per thousand registered births, using the technical syste mof « quotients of illegitimacy ». The national average is 28 illegitimate births per 1,000 registered, with the highest point in the Valle d'Aosta (50), Trentino-Alto Adige (46), Emilia-Romagna (43), Friuli-Venetia Julia (40) and Liguria (39). All these maximum points are registered in North Italy.

Table II - Total and Illegitimate Births per Region
(*annual averages for 1955/59*)

REGION	Total Births	Illegitimate	
		No.	Per 1,000 births
Piedmont	44,518	1,179	27
Valle d'Aosta	1,399	70	50
Liguria	18,583	715	39
Lombardy	104,726	2,515	24
Trentino-Alto Adige	14,316	656	46
Venetia	68,275	1,953	29
Friuli-Venetia Julia	15,048	605	40
Emilia-Romagna	49,382	2,110	43
North Italy	316,247	9,803	31
Marches	21,593	264	12
Tuscany	42,284	951	23
Umbria	11,914	238	20
Latium	69,967	2,666	38
Central Italy	145,758	4,119	28
Campania	115,233	3,276	28
Abruzzi and Molise	29,668	674	23
Apulia	84,248	1,791	21
Basilicata	16,583	328	20
Calabria	53,573	1,820	34
Sicily	107,740	2,689	25
Sardinia	33,793	917	27
South Italy	440,838	11,494	26
ITALY	902,843	25,416	28

In the central regions Latium shows 38 illegitimate births per 1,000, but this is due to the heavy population concentration in Rome.

In South Italy, the highest figures are registered in Calabria (34), Campania (28), Sardinia (27) and Sicily (25).

The regions with the lowest number are Umbria and Basilicata (20 per 1,000) with the absolute minimum in Marches (12 per 1,000).

VITICULTURE - ITS IMPORTANCE TO ITALIAN ECONOMY AND PROSPECTS UNDER THE E.E.C.

Advantages of the Second Phase of the E.C.M.

The agro-economic value of a particular crop was recently revealed in statistical data referring to the area under cultivation, total production and the yield per hectare. The optimum was calculated on the basic of the highest yield from soil particularly adapted to the crop in question and such factors as climate, position, height and watering facilities.

Considered from a strictly economic viewpoint, grape growing reveals weaknesses in certain regions while in others it has developed with extraordinary rapidity. In general, however, the past decade has witnessed marked improvements although the requirements of a modern age still have to be met and it is still not possible to say that the dictates of the European Common Market can be satisfied in full. The regulations of the Community require that Italy and France — as the largest and almost exclusive large - scale growers in the area — make a substantial effort towards improving the qualities of wines and cutting costs, thus satisfying a critical market and boosting the current low sales level. Indeed, Italy has been asked to produce wines of a much higher standard and to organize growers and an efficient commercial structure.

Growing. During the past ten years, Italian vineyards have expanded till they now represent the largest area under cultivation in the world, being slightly above France and Spain. According to certain calculations, slightly less than 1,700,000 hectares are devoted to *selected varieties of grapes*, against 1,600,000 and 1,500,000 hectares in France and Spain respectively.

An additional 125,000 hectares for the growing of selected varieties of grapes have been added to the total area between 1951 and 1960 (refer Table 1), the overall figure rising from 1,017,000 to more than 1,142,000 hectares. Mixed varieties are now grown over an area of 2,578,000 hectares approximately.

The above data, however, do not give a real picture of the varying situations in the regions. The greatest increase has been registered in Venetia, a region that produces high quality product and less quantity, offering excellent table wines that are in demand both on the home and foreign markets and revealing an outstanding organiza-

Table I - Regional Distribution of Vineyards 1951-60. Selected and Mixed Varieties (*in hectares*)

REGION	1951		1960		Variations 1951/60	
	Selected	Mixed	Selected	Mixed	Selected	Mixed
Piedmont-Val d'Aosta	161,736	40,174	155,426	20,222—	*6,310*	— *19,952*
Lombardy	41,209	122,510	42,333	97,555+	*1,144*	— *24,955*
Trentino-Alto Adige	13,120	20,116	17,509	12,398+	*4,389*	— *7,718*
Venetia	41,520	493,708	57,737	404,717+	*16,217*	— *88,991*
Friuli-Venetia Julia	6,042	99,084	7,502	94,588+	*1,460*	— *4,496*
Liguria	7,023	32,518	6,380	24,988—	*643*	— *7,530*
Emilia-Romagna	20,368	662,238	25,160	569,805+	*4,792*	— *92,433*
Tuscany	31,012	449,594	32,537	422,466+	*1,525*	— *27,128*
Umbria	2,424	196,809	1,589	163,329—	*835*	— *33,480*
Marches	8,226	354,981	8,891	351,987+	*665*	— *2,994*
Latium	59,260	158,210	69,198	160,532+	*9,938*	+ *2,322*
Abruzzi-Molise	49,676	25,991	51,152	25,083+	*1,476*	— *908*
Campania	47,429	153,820	41,898	153,141—	*5,531*	— *679*
Apulia	234,955	41,078	274,739	40,769+	*39,784*	— *309*
Lucania	16,307	1,540	19,652	9,328+	*3,345*	+ *7,788*
Calabria	45,457	21,423	45,188	21,169—	*269*	— *254*
Sicily	186,059	30,342	230,761	6,474+	*44,702*	— *23,868*
Sardinia	45,296	—	54,835	— +	*9,539*	—
Italy	1,017,119	2,904,136	1,142,507	2,578,551+	*125,358*	— *325,585*

tional structure, perhaps the only one of its kind in Italy. The nearness of the northern markets, local economic expansion and a highly functional productive and commercial organization have all been determining factors. Furthermore, over the past ten years, more than 16,200 hectares have been added to existing local vineyards, the total figure rising from more than 41,000 hectares in 1951 to over 57,000 in 1960. At the same time, mixed varieties have been reduced by almost 89,000 hectares, an extremely high figure than can only be shared with Emilia-Romagna.

Sicily and Apulia are the second and third regions that have shown the greatest expansion in the planting of selected vines, with respective additions of 44,702 and 39,784 hectares. The figure for Sicily during the period 1951-60 has risen from about 186,000 to 230,761 hectares and from 234,955 to 274,739 hectares for Apulia. The main Sicilian productive centre is Trapani which provides about half of the regional total and which, only recently, considerably expanded its vineyards: 90,000 hecatres in 1959, 105,000 in 1960 and 115,000 in 1961, of which 90,000 hectares are in full yield. The production of heavier wines, such as *Marsala*, has given an impulse to the development of the less scientific type of vineyard and although bringing little to the smallholder nevertheless yields three times as much profit as a similar area under wheat.

To all intents and purposes, it is the law of economic convenience

that holds sway in the province of Trapani since local grapegrowing, in constant expansion, is making successful inroads into the grain-growing areas which offer far less income. On the other hand, the famous crops obtained in the Etna area of Catania province are gradually disappearing as a result of the substitution of vines with citrus, a crop which is highly profitable. On higher ground, tree fruits and nuts are becoming more popular.

The growing of wine grapes in Apulia is likely to suffer heavily from unfavourable market conditions unless a speedy effort is made to obtain a higher quality table wine that can be successfully bottled. The rapid expansion of vineyards in this region took place in the last century as a result of heavy demands from France and Austro-Hungary for wines that could be used in blending and later by purchases on the part of the industry in northern Italy. Production of such quality wines is now threatened by the modern use of *concentrated must* which is gradually replacing blending wines and permit the preparation of a product with a high alcoholic content. The situation is serious since Apulia accounts for about a quarter of the vineyards of this type existing in Italy.

Other regions which have increased their vineyards are Sardinia (+ 9,539 hectares, from 45,296 to 54,835), Latium (+ 9,938, from 59,260 to 69,198 hectares) and Emilia Romagna.

The present tendencies in grape growing seem to be in sharp contrast with the traditions of such regions as Piedmont and Val d'Aosta, famous for high quality wines. There is also the fact that the highly industrialised and commercial triangle of which Turin is the vertex is offering such attractions that the populations of the surrounding hilly areas, once only concerned with the meticulous care of their vines, are now only too happy to migrate to the cities. Although there is still production of famous high quality wines and vermouths, the Piedmont industry is faced with several new problems and will probably have to concentrate on *offering lighter table wines*, more suitable to modern tastes. Obviously this cannot be done with *Barbera* and the answer seems to be — as in the case of Tuscany — an opportune blending of the most suitable wines.

Campania has reduced its quality crops (— 5,531 hectares, from 47,429 to 41,898 hectares). In spite of the great fame of some of its wines (« *Capri* » for example), the region is suffering a severe crisis as a result of scarce *economic sense*, a complicated market structure that is showing signs of heavy wear, a certain rigidness in production and a lack of a regional cooperative movement. Yet such wines as *Capri bianco*, *Ischia* and *Greco di Tufo* are qualities that are well worthy of being considered among the best that the European common

market can offer. Reductions are also to be noted in Calabria, Umbria and Liguria, all mountainous and hilly regions that are subjected to heavy migration.

Table II - Yield per Hectare - Selected Varieties - Variations during 1951-60 (*Quintals per Hectare*)

REGION	1951	1960	Variation	REGION	1951	1960	Variation
Piedmont-Val d'Aosta	45.9	72.2	+ *26.3*	Latium	40.3	47.3	+ *7.0*
Lombardy	65.2	79.9	+ *14.7*	Abruzzi-Molise	39.1	46.8	+ *7.7*
Trentino-Alto Adige	63.0	86.3	+ *23.3*	Campania	41.7	50.6	+ *8.9*
Venetia	61.3	100.1	+ *38.8*	Apulia	41.7	40.7	— *1.0*
Friuli-Venetia Julia	35.4	66.8	+ *31.4*	Lucania	47.0	31.5	— *15.5*
Liguria	56.4	62.9	+ *6.5*	Calabria	44.5	22.0	— *22.5*
Emilia-Romagna	41.7	71.3	+ *29.6*	Sicily	38.3	34.4	— *3.9*
Tuscany	56.7	60.5	+ *3.8*	Sardinia	22.4	31.6	+ *9.2*
Umbria	52.0	28.9	— *23.1*				
Marches	76.7	71.3	— *5.4*	*Italy*	43.5	5 .3	+ *6.8*

The above table demonstrates that some improvements have been registered in yield over the period 1951-1960.

Wine Production. Generally speaking, there has been a marked increase in the quantity of wine produced and this can be seen from comparison of the five year periods 1951-55 and 1956-60 which brings to light a difference of 14,254,000 quintals (refer Tables III and IV).

This means that, in spite of yeary variations, domestic stocks are increasing rapidly.

The impressive rise in the quantity of wine produced — mostly due to general improvements in equipment, particularly in the central and northern regions — has accentuated the problem of surplus since

Table III - Wine Grapes per Region - 1951-55 and 1956-60 (*thousand quintals*)

REGION	1951/55	1956/60	Variation	REGION	1951/56	1956/60	Variation
Piedmont-Val d'Aosta	8,873	10,157	+ *1,284*	Latium	4,801	5,862	+ *1,061*
Lombardy	4,462	4,362	— *100*	Abruzzi-Molise	2,168	2,427	+ *259*
Trentino-Alto Adige	1,381	1,796	+ *405*	Campania	3,925	4,640	+ *715*
Venetia	7,705	10,024	+ *2,319*	Apulia	10,616	12,514	+ *1,898*
Friuli-Venetia Julia	742	1,072	+ *330*	Lucania	766	884	+ *118*
Liguria	754	846	+ *92*	Calabria	1,845	1,691	— *154*
Emilia-Romagna	5,961	6,413	+ *452*	Sicily	8,627	9,246	+ *619*
Tuscany	6,333	6,166	— *167*	Sardinia	1,238	2,018	+ *780*
Umbria	1,366	1,313	— *53*				
Marches	3,425	3,789	+ *364*	*Italy*	74,988	89,242	+ *14,254*

Table IV - Wine Produced per Region - 1951-55 and 1956-60
(*thousand hectolitres*)

REGION	1951/55	1956/60	Variation	REGION	1951/55	1956/60	Variation
Piedmont-Val d'Aosta	5,993	6,953	+ *960*	Latium	3,112	4,064	+ *972*
Lombardy	3,040	3,029	— *11*	Abruzzi-Molise	1,402	1,622	+ *220*
Trentino Alto-Adige	980	2,808	+ *1,828*	Campania	2,601	3,054	+ *453*
Venetia	5,130	7,073	+ *1,943*	Apulia	7,369	9,116	+ *1,747*
Friuli-Venetia Julia	512	723	+ *211*	Lucania	498	576	+ *78*
Liguria	487	555	+ *68*	Calabria	1,212	1,130	— *82*
Emilia-Romagna	4,389	4,621	+ *232*	Sicily	5,858	6,418	+ *560*
Tuscany	4,359	4,363	+ *4*	Sardinia	783	1,352	+ *569*
Umbria	930	877	— *53*				
Marches	2,300	2,563	+ *263*	*Italy*	50,355	59,298	+ *8,943*

production is almost exclusively directed towards satisfying the home market.

Per-capita consumption in Italy is now 116 litres (1962) rising from 113.3 in 1956-60 (Table V), 85.4 in 1936-40 and 128.7 in 1911-15. A long period of contraction has, therefore, been followed by recovery but the figures are still far below those registered for France (132 litres per person).

Table V - Wine - Production, Domestic Per-Capita Consumption and Exports, 1911-1960

PERIOD	Production (1,000 hl.)	Per Capita (litres)	Exports (1,000 hl.)	PERIOD	Production (1,000 hl.)	Per Capita (litres)	Exports (1,000 hl.)
1911–15	47,102	128.7	1,430	1936–1940	40,528	85.4	1,585
1916–1920	39,716	104.9	1,246	1941–46	35,250	74.0	1,627
1921–25	45,401	114.2	1,330	1946–1950	36,185	71.1	640
1926–1930	45,667	106.9	1,003	1951–55	50,355	95.9	1,155
1931–35	39,414	90.4	1,082	1956–1960	59,298	113.3	1,885

The problem of surplus stock might well be solved by introducing regulations that make it compulsory to set aside a certain quantity of annual production for alcohol, an operation that could be undertaken by the larger and better equipped plants. Certain advantages could also be obtained through new legislation on vineyards on the plains, particularly through a sliding tax scale.

Commerce. The weak point in the marketing of grapes and wine in Italy is the absence of large cooperative organizations or consortia. These should at least be on a *regional or provincial scale* so that they could be responsible for the sale of innumerable small quantities

supplied by individual smallholders and, at least, spread sales over a more even period.

Certainly progress has been made in equipping cooperatives, particularly in the northern regions (Venetia, Emilia, Trentino-Alto Adige), although many of these have been in existence for years and are well established. During the pre-war period, of the 38 million hectolitres of wine produced, the grapes processed in industrial plants, cooperatives and consortia represented about 40% of the total crop, while the rest pertained to small private growers with but mediocre equipment. Today, with a production of 60 million hectolitres, the situation is quite the opposite and the cooperative movement has spread to a marked degree. At the present time, there are 520 cooperative plants and consortia operating in the reform areas with a total storage capacity of more than 13 million hectolitres, equal to about 25% of recent average production.

Italian Wines and the E.C.M. The recent agreement establishing the second phase of execution of the European common market is of fundamental importance to agriculture and, therefore, closely concerns wines and grapes. The Brussels agreement of early January offers Italy and France greater possibilities of exporting more wines to the German Federal Republic against a promise, also accepted by Benelux, to import greater stocks of Rhine wines. The agreement also stated that high quality wines should be suitably guaranteed and contemplated further technical innovations.

As far as Italy is concerned, the European common market means a return (even with products that are technically different) to the large volume of trade in wine that existed during the last few decades of the past century and which came to a standstill following the termination of agreements on the part of France and Austro-Hungary. Trade — of a modest level to date and not exceeding 2 million hectolitres per annum — corresponds to *hardly one fifth* of what Italy should export (10 million hectolitres per annum) in view of overproduction that cannot be absorbed by the domestic market.

Even though foreign sales be calculated at a basic figure of 10 million hectolitres per annum, this would still not affect expansion of domestic consumption which in expexted to reach a per-capita level of 119.8 litres and a total of 68,760,000 hectolitres.

As far as wines and grapes are concerned, the European Economic Community tends towards the creation of a unified market for wines by January 1, 1970. This immense area — which may well grow as a result of other nations entering the Community — is to be served in eight years and this will give time for the setting up of an adequate

Table VI - Forecast of Wine Consumption - 1965-70

	Average 1955/57	1965	1970
Total quantity (1000 hl.)	53,580	63,300	68,760
Per-capita consumption (litres)	111	125	133
% 1955-57	*100*	*112.6*	*119.8*
Per-capita expenditure (lire)	13,609	17,560	20,613
% 1955-57	*100*	*129.0*	*151.5*

N.B. - Expansion levels based on very prudent forecast.
(*Istituto Ital. Studi sui Consumi – Orlando-Cao Pinna*)

structure. Planning should foresee adaptation of the resources of the member states to the needs of the Community and marked improvements in quality; a stable market must be introduced and opportune regulations introduced that will eliminate heavy oscillations in prices from one year to another and between seasons; assurances must be given so that the farmer and grower will not suffer as a reason of seasonal setbacks; consumers must be safeguarded and offered genuine products, rationally prepared and put on the market at reasonable prices; processing industries must be protected.

The new organization tends to create an equilibrium between supply and demand, adapting the available resources of producer countries to *long and short term* requirements. Considered over a long term, this means that Italy's annual production must be kept to a certain figure and, if necessary, vineyards yielding low quality fruit should be eliminated. Short term requirements call for much deeper market knowledge, with technical and economic surveys to provide the necessary information for accurate forecasts, as well as regulations that will help producers in marketing their goods in proportion to demand. Much help can also be obtained from cooperative organizations specialised in holding stockpiles, a new loans and credit policy, etc.

A wine register is to be introduced before January 1, 1963. This will contain particulars as to the qualities of grapes grown in the Community, grouped as « *recommended* » (the finest), « *authorised* », « *licensed* » and « *prohibited* » (which will be completely eliminated). Controls will also be made of vines and vineyards and experts will give advice as to the best areas to be used for the growing of different qualities of grapes. Provisions are to be introduced that will ensure better quality wines, analysis and blending methods will be unified and classification become stricter. Other norms to be

brought into force contemplate unified laws for the member states of the E.C.M. and a common trade policy towards countries outside the Community.

The Italian wine and grape sector needed some « E.C.M. backing ». In view of the general stimulus the Community is giving, new regulations are to be drafted that will: reorganize the present system used by growers, permit selection and extension of areas suitable to the production of high quality wines, bring about a stronger cooperative movement and more consortia, permit stricter control of lables and contents (a Bill already approved by the Cabinet is now before Parliament), authorize cancellation of internal duties on low quality wines (already partially in force), permit the opening of a register of national product, to be undertaken by the State and brought up to date every five years, etc.

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FEMALE LABOUR IN ITALY

Espansion of the labour force during 1954-61

The term *labour force* is applied to all persons who exercise a profession, trade or craft or those who are unemployed but seeking new employment. It also includes persons who have not previously been employed but who are registered for first employment. Persons in this category must be over 14 years of age, however, at the time any survey is taken. The labour force does not include persons who have no profession or craft or who are not seeking employment (children, students, housewives, members of the Armed Forces, pensioners, disabled persons, property owners, etc.) even though, when a census is made, they may have undertaken casual employment.

The labour force in Italy is calculated by means of a statistical sample survey carried out by the Central Institute of Statistics every three months in certain Communes (1).

Over the past few years, the male labour force has represented about 61-62% of the resident population; women represent about 19-23% and the percentage figure is low because most are housewives and, therefore, not considered as holding a professional status.

According to the most recent figures, the labour force at *November 10, 1961*, consisted of 20,923,000 persons, of which 15,208,000 men and 5,715,000 women, equal to 73% and 27% respectively.

In 1954, when the first survey of this type was made, the labour force totalled 18,972,000, of which 14,406,000 men and 4,566,000 women. This means that, between 1954 and 1961, the male labour force has expanded by 5.6% while the number of employed women has risen by 25.2%, thus pointing to the gradual increase in female labour in productive enterprise.

Subtracting 211,000 women who are unemployed or who are seeking first employment, the total is approximately 5.5 million, distributed as follows: agriculture 33%, industr 31%, other activities 36%. Most employed women are young, 65% being between the ages of 14 and 40 years. In this, Italy differs from other European nations

(1) Refer: *The Active Population and the Labour Force* - « Italian Affairs » Vol X - n. 3 (May-June 1961).

which, lacking manpower and fresh labour recruits, are compelled to employ women of a higher age group.

Of every hundred women engaged in agriculture, 60% belong to families managing farms or smallholdings and, therefore, do not receive wages. In industry, on the other hand, 70% of the women employed receive wages under collective agreements. As far as other activities are concerned, about 16% are self-employed and 35% are executives or employees but a large number is also engaged in branches not covered by the above.

EMPLOYED LABOUR FORCE AT NOVEMBER 10, 1961.
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE LABOUR

REGION	Total Labour Force (thousands)	Women	
		Thousands	Percentage
Piedmont, Valle d'Aosta, Liguria	2,489	725	29
Lombardy	3,154	951	30
Three Venetias	2,471	637	26
Emilia-Romagna, Marches	2,349	746	32
Tuscany, Umbria, Upper Latium	1,871	467	25
South Latium, Campania	2,080	577	28
Abruzzi and Molise	728	232	32
Apulia, Basilicata, Calabria	2,303	643	28
Sicily	1,525	225	15
Sardinia	451	74	16
Rome and Province	947	227	24
Italy	20,268	5,504	27

About 52% of women workers are employed in the manufacturing industries, 26% in various services and public departments, 17% in agriculture and 5% in other activities, commerce in particular.

Employment of female labour varies considerably in the different regions. Of every 100 persons employed at November 10, 1961, 27 were women and this figure rises to a maximum of 32% in Emilia-Romagna, Marches, Abruzzi and Molise and drops to a minimum of 15-16% in Sicily and Sardinia where the population mostly lives in towns and women remain at home.

With the exception of the islands, women play a leading role in all productive enterprise and they represent a reserve of labour that will become of great importance as Italy continues its economic expansion.

THE PLASTICS INDUSTRY

Production, Consumption and Expansion

Italy entered the plastics field about thirty years after the main producer countries had established themselves but has, nevertheless, made enormous progress over the past ten years. Much of this, of course, is largely due to new types of machinery, the advent of petro-chemicals and the chemical employment of methane, all of which have helped create conditions ideal to the expansion and consolidation of an industry which is now facing an ever growing demand for its products.

The 1950-60 period has witnessed a sharp rise in the number of plants, both on the part of those companies already well established and enterprise fresh to the field. At the present time, there are 37, five of which are to be judged the most important and follow a complete production cycle. Value of plant is estimated at 300 milliard lire, including that used for the production of basic raw materials and semi-processed products.

The Montecatini Company is building a large petro-chemical plant at Brindisi and enlarging several of its other plants. The former is expected to process about 1.5 million tons of petroleum per annum and overall values should rise by about 25% during the current year.

According to a recent survey, there were, in 1959, 3,800 compression moulds for thermosetting materials, 3,000 automatic ejection presses, 1,200 extrusion moulds, 25 roller presses, 50 rolling machines and vacuum moulds.

Manpower employed in all branches of the plastics industry now numbers about 70,000, a figure that increases considerably if the various collateral activities, such as reprocessing of semi-finished products, construction of machinery, etc., are taken into consideration.

Production in 1950 was about 15,000 tons but this rose to about 76,000 tons in 1954 and approximately 300,000 tons in 1960, figures that demonstrate the expansion that has taken place.

According to preliminary, non-official data, the industry showed a further rise in output in 1961 to reach an estimated value of 100 milliard lire. However, since the plastics branch includes both manufacturers and companies engaged in processing materials for the plastics industry, there is every reason to believe that manufactures obtained may be valued at 200 milliard lire.

Table I - Plastic Materials - Domestic Consumption and Foreign Trade from 1956 to 1960 (*thousand tons*)

Import-Export Consumption	Year	West Germany	France	Italy	Belgium Luxembourg	Holland	U.K.	U.S.A.
Imports	1956	29	41	15	36	33	24	—
	1957	41	50	18	28	11	34	36
	1958	61	43	24	33	47	43	10
	1959	88	41	43	32	57	57	16
	1960	105	56	53	44	77	98	12
Exports	1956	110	11	33	15	18	109	177
	1957	145	13	24	18	27	124	227
	1958	197	26	42	19	34	135	264
	1959	221	44	60	12	42	171	325
	1960	264	63	100	13	48	186	324
Domestic Consumption	1956	404	160	98	29	50	227	—
	1957	442	220	128	33	29	307	1,529
	1958	471	249	147	41	63	332	1,586
	1959	646	268	203	53	70	393	2,041
	1960	805	340	250	70	105	482	2,018

Expansion of the domestic industry is also confirmed by data relative to consumption and foreign trade as well as the position that Italy has reached on a world scale. In 1954, consumption was 68,000 tons but this had increased to 250,000 tons by 1960. Exports had swelled to 100,000 tons in 1960, against 20,000 tons in 1954.

Table I contains statistical data supplied by the O.E.E.C. and shows that Italy is among the first seven major producers, holding fifth place after the United States, Germany, the United Kingdom and Japan (volume of foreign trade).

Leadership in exports on the basis of absolute figures is held by the United States with 324,000 tons, followed by West Germany with 264,000 tons. Considered according to percentage of production, on

Table II - World Production of Plastic Materials (*thousand tons*)

PRODUCER NATIONS	1959	1960	% variations	PRODUCER NATIONS	1959	1960	% variations
U.S.A.	2,670	2,630	— *1*	Sweden	56	66	+ *18*
Great Britain	507	570	+ *13*	Switzerland	25	32	+ *28*
West Germany	779	964	+ *24*	Spain	23	40	+ *74*
France	271	347	+ *28*	Canada	155	160	+ *3*
Italy	220	297	+ *25*	Japan	488	679	+ *39*
Austria	28	36	+ *28*	East Europe	1,020	1,250	+ *22*
Belgium-Luxembourg	33	39	+ *18*	Others	180	220	+ *22*
Norway	23	28	+ *22*				
Low Countries	55	76	+ *38*	*Total*	6,533	7,434	+ *14*

the other hand, Italy heads the list, having exported about 33.5% of total production in 1960, against a constantly shrinking figure for imports.

In spite of the marked rise in domestic consumption, per capita figures in Italy are still not at a satisfactory level and are much lower than those registered in other nations.

Per capita consumption in 1960 was as follows: Western Germany 14.4 kg.; United States 11.3 kg.; Great Britain 9.2 kg.; Holland 8.7 kg.; France 7.5 kg.; Belgium-Luxembourg 7.4 kg.; Italy 4.9 kg.

* * *

The growth of the Italian plastics industry and its success on world markets have been facilitated by the quality of product and the range offered.

Analysis of the various components of the industry reveals that there has been a greater demand for thermosetting-resins (phenol resins, polystyrene resins) and thermoplastic resins (polyvinyl chloride resins, polyethylene, polyisobutylene) particularly the latter which have been introduced in recent years.

One of the most important resins is polyvinyl chloride for it is widely used throughout the whole of the plastics industry and is one of the leading export items. The various qualities produced in Italy have been highly successful on foreign markets.

Production in 1960 reached 105,000 tons while domestic consumption rose from 45,000 tons in 1959 to 63,000 tons in 1960, with a *per capita* consumption of 1.6 kg. which is not far removed from that of the United States (2.2 kg.).

All the larger Italian manufacturers (Montecatini, Sicedison, E.N.I., Solvay) have already announced that they intend to step up their productive capacity over the next few years and SNIA Viscosa and the Soc. Rumianca have already launched several development schemes.

Polyethylene is a resin that is also widely used and consumption in 1960 was approximately 34,000 tons, a figure well above those registered in preceding years.

Montecatini has also produced a resin which goes under the trade name of « moplen », discovered during a research programme and now manufecturered at the company's Ferrara plant. The new plant at Brindisi will start production this year and will have a capacity able to meet an expanding market that calls for product with such

qualities as lightness, resistance to heat and chemical agents and a varied range of colours.

The third of the « more important resins » is called polystyrol and production of this reached 35,000 tons in 1960, consumption being 20,000 tons. Over the past few years, this resin has been employed in the production of accessories for refrigerators and automobiles and covers for office equipment, all items that undergo heavy wear and tear.

The Rhodiatoce and Sicedison companies are responsible for the polyvinyl acetate resins, production of which totalled 12,000 tons in 1960. Consumption has risen and there is a high demand for these resins in the manufacture of emulsions.

Italian companies also produce polyamides (Rhodiatoce and SNIA Viscosa) and polytetrafluoroethylene (Montecatini).

Among the thermoplastic resins are the acrylic and methacrylate resins consumption of which in 1960 was 3,800 tons for the former in emulsions and solutions and 3,300 tons for the latter.

Although production increases in thermosetting resins are somewhat lower than those registered for thermoplastics, an average of about 10% per annum and even more has been maintained. Some excellent results have been achieved with moulding powders and phenol resins, production in 1960 being 17,000 and 8,000 tons respectively.

Polystyrene resins, production of which was started by Montecatini in 1953, have proved successful and are now being manufactured by Montecatini, Bombrini Parodi Delfino, Resia, S.I.R. and S.A.C.I. Total consumption has reached 7,500 tons and this resin is mostly used for flat and corrugated sheeting (1,800,000 sq.m.), buttons (2,000 tons) and small rowing and outboard motor boats.

It is almost impossible to list the uses to which plastics can be put. Apart from those consumer goods familiar to the public, all industrial branches are employing plastics in one way of another. But because of the ease with which they may be used, plastics have persuaded both large and medium industry and artisan enterprise to launch new ventures that are already proving highly successful.

This division among all levels of industrial enterprise has led to great variety in production, high quality and functional characteristics and an immediate answer to rising demands resulting from a better standard of living.

CALENDAR OF EVENTS

JANUARY 1962

1. - President Gronchi sends a New Year message to Italians resident abroad.

2. - The Minister of the Interior, the Hon. Mario Scelba, introduces a Bill modifying Communal and Provincial legislation to the Senate.

3. - The Defence Council meets at the Quirinal under the chairmanship of the President of the Republic. Among those present are the Prime Minister and the Hon. Antonio Segni, the Hon. Mario Scelba, the Hon. Giuseppe Pella, the Hon. Paolo Emilio Taviani, the Hon. Giulio Andreotti and the Defence Chief of Staff, General Rossi.

— Italian representatives sign an agreement at Cairo for the purchase of cotton valued at 4 million pounds (E).

4. - The Standing Committee for Education of the Chamber of Deputies meets to consider and approve a Government Bill calling for expenditure of 104 milliard lire on a new educational project.

— The Italian Foreign Minister receives the Yugoslav Ambassador, Mihailo Javorski.

— The Minister of Labour, the Hon. Sullo, meets the Secretary General of the Italian Federation of Independent Trade Unions, the Hon. Storti, for talks on unified social welfare contributions for agricultural workers.

— The Minister of Tourism and Entertainment, the Hon. Folchi, meets the President of the Italian Automobile Club, Prince Caracciolo and other expoments. Talks concern the opinions reached by the inter-Ministerial Committee authorized to examine safety regulations to be adopted during race meetings on roads and closed circuits.

5. - The Minister of Transport, the Hon. Spataro, visits Catanzaro and Cosenza to meet the mayors of Calabria and discuss problems connected with the Calabrian-Lucania railways.

6. - The Miniser of the Interior, the Hon. Mario Scelba, inaugurates an Institute of Political Research, named after Don Luigi Sturzo, at Catania.

— The Minister of Public Health, Senator Giardina, making a speech on « Mothers and Childrens Day » explains the health policy adopted by the Government.

8. - The Prime Minister, the Hon. Amintore Fanfani, and the Foreign Minister the Hon. Antonio Segni, arrive in Rabat on an official visit to Morocco.

— The Minister of Public Instruction, Senator Bosco, attending the opening of the academic year at Naples University, explains the new law authorizing additional expenditure on education.

9. - The Chairman of the Interparliamentary Union, the Hon. Codacci Pisanelli, is received by the President of the United States and expresses the hope that world relations will soon become less tense.

10. - The President of the Republic, accompanied by the Privy Seal, the Hon. Guido Gonella, visits the Law Courts for the opening of the judicial year.

11. - President Gronchi receives the Commander of the Allied Forces, South Europe, Admiral James Russel.

— The Minister of the Mercantile Marine, Senator Jervolino, visits Trieste for the launching of three motor vessels. In a speech, the Minister confirms that the Government is interested in developing the shipbuilding industry.

— The Socialist congress concludes with the approval of a Resolution authorizing the party to support a government that is prepared to execute a programme based on the suggestions made by the Economic Committee.

12. - The Speaker of the Belgian Senate, Senator Stuye, has talks with the Hon. Mario Scelba, Minister of the Interior and the Foreign Minister, the Hon. Antonio Segni. Discussions concern the Alto Adige controversy.

— The Chairman of the Interparliamentary Union, the Hon. Codacci Pisanelli, meets the Secretary General of the United Nations, Mr. U. Thant, who expresses a desire to visit Rome in April.

— The Minister of Agriculture, the Hon. Rumor, authorizes the first payment of fund to be invested in a vast agricultural development programme reaching the total amount of 98,254,539,000 lire.

13. - President Gronchi receives the Prime Minister at the Quirinal. The Hon. Amintore Fanfani makes a report on his visit to Morocco and on the questions he proposes to discuss during his forthcoming meeting with Mr. MacMillan.

15. - The Prime Minister informs the Cabinet of the results of his visit to Morocco.

16. - The Prime Minister and the Minister of Foreign Affairs arrive in London for talks with Mr. MacMillan and Lord Home.

— Approval of a Bill modifying the composition of the Senate.

17. - A communique issued at the conclusion of Anglo-Italian talks states that close cooperation between Great Britain and Italy will continue to play an important role in the settlement of European problems. The communique adds that discussions were also held on East-West relations and questions connected with Great Britain's entry into the E.C.M.

— In a statement to the foreign press, the Minister of the Interior, the Hon. Mario Scelba, explains the Italian Government's attitude over Alto Adige.

18. - The Minister of Public Health, Senator Giardina, swears in the Senior Council for Public Health. The ceremony is attended by President Gronchi.

19. - The Senate approves a special law on Naples which foresees funds to settle the many problems now facing the city. The law will remain in force for twenty years and the Exchequer will pay out 486,510,000,000 lire.

— The Minister of Public Works attends the first meeting of a Commission authorized to examine water control, afforestation, irrigation and agricultural development in the Po Delta.

20. - President Gronchi receives the Prime Minister at the Quirinal. He later meets the Chairman of the Committee for Foreign Affairs of the French National Assembly, M. Maurice Schumann.

22. - The general Conference of Austrian experts on Alto Adige opens at Vienna. Exponents of the Sudtiroler Volkspartei are also attending the talks.

23. - Pope John XXIII concludes the preparatory session on the Oecumenical Council and announces the publication of two Papal documents.

— The Committee of Ministers for Southern Italy meets under the chairmanship of the Hon. Giulio Pastore to examine certain questions relative to the industrialization of southern Italy, particularly those relative to the creation of industrial zones.

— The Minister of Industry and Trade visits the offices of the Chamber of Commerce in Rome for the first meeting of the Committee for the Economic Development of Latium. The Minister explains the task facing the Committee which will be responsible for ascertaining the possibilities of economic expansion in the region.

25. - The Italian Cabinet approves the 1962-63 budget estimates and various Bills, including one dealing with the regulations governing factory councils.
— The Minister of Foreign Trade attends the first meeting of the new General Council of the I.C.E.
— The Administrative Committee of the Southern Italy Development Fund approves new projects involving expenditure of 4,302 million lire under the 15-year Plan.

26. - The President of the Republic receives the Prime Minister at the Quirinal. The Hon. Amintore Fanfani explains the situation that has come about as a result of the withdrawal of the Social Democrats and the Republicans from the Government. The President, considering that further information is required, asks the Prime Minister to examine the position of the majority party and to refer back to him.

27. - The Congress of the Christian Democrat Party opens at the San Carlo Theatre, Naples. The Hon. Aldo Moro explains the political trends of the party and its proposed programme.
— The Austrian Ambassador in Rome hands back the Italian Note handed over by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on January 25.

28. - The Italian Government confirms what was set out in its Note of January 25 and which was rejected by Austria.

29. - The 1962-63 budget estimates, approved by the Italian Cabinet, are presented to the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate.

30. - The President of the Republic consults with the Speakers of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate on the Government crisis.

31. - The Hon. Aldo Moro summarizes and concludes the Congress of the Christian Democrat Party at Naples. The Moro-Fanfani policy, favouring a swing to the left, is approved.

FEBRUARY 1962

1. - The 8th. National Congress of the Christian Democrat Party concludes at Naples. The Ballot Committee informs members of the voting results which show that the Hon. Aldo Moro is in the lead.
— The Undersecretary for Foreign Trade meets the Dutch Minister for Social Affairs, Mr. Gilbert Veldkanp, to examine problems affecting Italian manpower employed in the Low Countries.
— The Italian Institute for Africa and the Ancona Fair decide upon the opening of a permanent Italo-African Information Office as a means of encouraging greater collaboration between Italy and the African states.

2. - The Italian Prime Minister meets the President of the Republic and informs him of the Government's decision to resign. The third Fanfani Cabinet has been in office since July 26, 1960.
— His Holiness Pope John XXIII announces that the Oecumenical Council will open on October 11, 1962.
— The Minister of Labour and Social Insurance, the Hon. Sullo, meets the Dutch Minister for Social Affairs and Public Health, Mr. Veldkamp who proposes a special meeting of the Ministers of Labour and Social Affairs of the six states to discuss closer social cooperation within the ambit of the E.E.C.

3. - The President of the Republic, following the resignation of the Fanfani Government, opens discussions with political leaders and receives the Speakers of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies and the former Presidents of the Constituent Assembly, the Hon. Giuseppe Saragat and the Hon. Umberto Terracini.

5. - The National Council of the Christian Democrat Party meets to elect

its officers. Senator Piccioni is reconfirmed as Chairman of the National Council, the Hon. Aldo Moro as Party Secretary and Chief Editor of the newspaper « Il Popolo », and Dr. Branzi as Administrative Secretary. Representatives of all political tendencies within the party are appointed to the Council. The Hons. Salizzoni, Scaglia and Forlani are elected Vice-Secretaries of the Christian Democrat Party.

— The Minister for Justice, the Hon. Guido Gonella, is present at the first meeting of the Commission authorized to draft a Bill on reform of the Penal Code.

— The Italian Foreign Minister, the Hon. Antonio Segni, receives the Prime Minister of Somalia, Mr. Schermarche.

— Gaetano Cardinal Cicognani, Prefect of the Sacred Congregation of Rites, dies in Rome.

6. - Teodosio Clemente Cardinal De Gouveia, Archbishop of Lorenco Marques, dies at Mozambique.

7. - The Italian Foreign Minister, the Hon. Antonio Segni, holds talks with the U.S. Ambassador, Mr. Reinhardt, and the British Ambassador, Sir Ashley Clarke.

— The Privy Seal, the Hon. Guido Gonella, is present at the first meeting of the Commission authorized to draft regulations on the execution of the Air Navigation Code.

— The Minister of Defence, the Hon. Giulio Andreotti, receives General Charles Palmer, who is resigning from his appointment as Chief of the Military Consultive Groups for aid to the allied states in Europe.

8. - The Minister of Information of the Government of Somalia, Mr. Ali Mohamed Hirave, arrives in Rome from Paris.

9. - The President of the Republic concludes his consultations with political leaders over the Government crisis.

— The Administrative Committee of the Southern Italy Development Fund approves new projects valued at 5,590 million lire under the fifteen year plan and the 1961-1962 programme.

— The Minister of Public Works visits Bologna to be present at the opening of the Convention on Road Accidents and their Causes.

— The trial of persons involved in bomb throwing episodes at Trento and Rome opens at the Rome Court of Assises.

10. - The President of the Republic calls upon the Hon. Amintore Fanfani to form a new Government. The Prime Minister accepts on condition that preliminary discussions with political leaders prove favourable.

12. - The Hon. Amintore Fanfani opens consultations with party representatives for the purpose of forming a new Government. He has talks with the Hons. Aldo Moro, Gui and Gava of the Christian Democrat Party, the Hons. Reale and La Malfa of the Republican Party, the Hons. Saragat, Tanassi and Viglianesi of the Social Democrat Party and the Hons. Pietro Nenni, Pertini and Barbareschi of the Socialist Party.

— The President of the Republic accepts the appointment of Mr. Soleiman Gerbi as Libyan Ambassador in Rome and Prince Soyyed Mohamed Abdul Kuddus Al Wazir as Special Representative and Minister Plenipotentiary of Yemen.

— The Minister for the Southern Italy Development Fund, the Hon. Giulio Pastore, receives the Japanese Ambassador, Mr. Suemitsu Kadowaki, who accompanies a group of Japanese businessmen.

13. - Leaders of the Christian Democrat Party, the Republic Party and the Social Democrat Party meet the Prime Minister to draft a programme for the new Government.

— Italy receives a Soviet proposal on disarmament in anticipation of the 18 power conference.

14. - The assembly of the Central Committee of the Italian Communist

Party concludes with a speech by the Hon. Palmiro Togliatti.

15. - The Hon. Amintore Fanfani continues discussions in his attempts to form a new Government.

— The President of the Republic is present at the opening of the new premises of the Senior Council of Magistrates.

16. - The Hon. Amintore Fanfani announces that he has reached agreement with three political parties over the formation of a new Government.

— The Committee of Ministers, under the chairmanship of the Hon. Amintore Fanfani, approves the Italian space research programme.

17. - The Italian Ambassador in Moscow, Carlo Alberto Straneo, hands the Italian Government's reply th the Note that Mr. Khrushchev sent on February 13 to members of the Disarmament Commitee.

— The Executive of the Christian Democrat Party meets today. The Political Secretary, the Hon. Aldo Moro, and the Hon. Amintore Fanfani, explain the political agreement and programme established with the Social Democrat Party and the Republican Party as a means of forming a coalition government.

— His Holiness Pope John XXIII announces that He will hold a Consistory on March 19 for the creation of ten new Cardinals (membership of the College of Cardinals will rise to 87 members, representing 32 nations).

19. - The Christian Democrat Parliamentary groups approve the programme of the new Government. The meetings are attended by the Hon. Amintore Fanfani and the Political Secretary, the Hon. Aldo Moro.

20. - The President of the Republic receives the new Presidential Committee of the Italian Workers Catholic Action.

— At Strasbourg, the European Assembly examines questions concerning sources of energy.

21. - The Prime Minister hands a list of new Ministers to the President of the Republic.

— The Minister of Industry and Trade, the Hon. Colombo, attends the annual assembly of representatives of Italian Industry in Rome.

— The Foreign Minister meets the U.S. Attorney General, Mr. Robert Kennedy.

22. - The members of the new Government are sworn in at the Quirinal.

— The Executive and Members of Parliament of the Liberal Party meet under the chairmanship of the Hon. Malagodi and confirm their opposition to the centre-left policy of the new Government.

23. - The Christian Democrat groups of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies meet to elect the new Undersecretaries of State.

— The fourth Fanfani Cabinet meets at Palazzo Chigi to assign special offices to Ministers and to nominate the Undersecretaries of State.

26. - The Prime Minister meets parliamentary exponents of the Opposition parties to inform them officially of the formation of the new Government.

— The trial of seven Austrian and German students, accused of terrorism in Trento and Rome concludes today. The accused are sentenced to periods of imprisonment ranging from 1 to 5 years.

27. - The Secretariat of the Communist Party meets under the chairmanship of the Hon. Palmiro Togliatti to examine the political situation.

— The Governor of the Bank of Italy, Professor Guido Carli, speaks to the Assembly of the Banche Popolari and explains the need to safeguard monetary stability.

28. - At the Ministry of Defence, meetings between Italian and Peruvian delegations on an air agreement, conclude in general agreement.

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